DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 180 102 EA 012 298

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TITLE Crime and Disruption in Schools. A Selected Bibliography.
INSTITUTION Aspen Systems Corp., Germantown, Md.
SPONS AGENCY National Inst. of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice (Dept. of Justice/LEAA), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE Jan 79
CONTRACT J-LEAA-023-77
NOTE 103p.: Appendix C may not reproduce clearly
AVAILABLE FROM Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402 (Stock No. 027-000-00862-3)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Annotated Bibliographies: Crime: Delinquent Behavior: Discipline Problems: Elementary Secondary Education: Police School Relationship: *Prevention: *School Security: *School Vandalism: Security Personnel: Student Rights: *Violence

ABSTRACT

This annotated bibliography about crime and disruption in schools has been assembled from academic, professional, and government sources. The citations are organized into four major parts. "Overview: Nature and Extent of the Problem" contains studies that describe the cost of school crimes, primarily vandalism and arson, both in dollars and in psychosociological terms. "The Students: Misbehavior and Traditional Discipline" concerns studies of the causes and manifestations of student misbehavior. The effect of traditional school discipline methods (corporal punishment and suspension) on students is included, as are several discussions of students' rights. "School Programs: Multiple Approaches" includes a sampling of curriculum changes, teaching methods, student-based discipline, alternative schools, programs for handling known offenders, and other innovative strategies. "School Buildings: Physical Security" describes the use of police and security guards on the premises, together with a variety of anti-intrusion hardware and systems. The Executive Summary of the National Institute of Education study, "Violent Schools--Safe Schools," is reprinted in the appendices following a list of sources and of organizations currently working in the field. (Author/MLF)

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Crime and Disruption in Schools

EA 012 298

United States Department of Justice
Law Enforcement Assistance Administration
National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice

The problem of crime and disruption in our schools concerns us all. This Selected Bibliography has been prepared to assist school administrators, interested citizens, and community groups address the problem and benefit from each other's experiences.

Paul Cascarano

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of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice

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CRIME AND DISRUPTION IN SCHOOLS

A Selected Bibliography

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January 1979

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INTRODUCTION

The study of school-based crime and disruption is relatively new, beginning in the late 1960's and early 1970's in response to increased costs of property destruction and serious threats of student disorder. In this period, many school districts established security offices, which in turn began collecting data on the nature and extent of the violence problem. Nationally aggregated data thus became available for the first time in the mid-1970's.

As crime and disruption in schools came to be considered a distinct field of study, views and terms have been refined. Some people have even questioned whether there is indeed a problem, considering the tremendous number of youth attending school; others have come to think of the problem, not as a crime epidemic in our public schools, but as a function of the changes in the nature and extent of data made available by newly formed school security offices. Most observers acknowledge that the schools are experiencing crime and discipline problems. Whereas many observers of this field recommend security programs and procedures as a remedy, there are some who recommend revisions in curriculums, teaching methods, and school governance. At the present, theories of school-based crime and violence are beginning to appear in academic journals, and imaginative and sophisticated remedies are being developed.

Congressional interest in and concern with this topic have been extensive. Hearings have been held in either the Senate or the House of Representatives regularly since the early 1970's.

This bibliography has been compiled to provide readers with a wide range of material from academic, professional, and government sources. Many of the articles and studies are representative of a genre, and in judging a particular work, readers are urged to consider year of publication as well as content. Thus, although some of the works of the early 1970's may, in light of more recent findings, appear to be harsh or extreme reactions to violence in schools, they did not necessarily appear so when they were published. Most of the documents cited were published in the mid to late seventies, and this, in itself, is significant, for the field now referred to as school-based crime and violence was largely unknown even as late as 1973.

The citations are organized into four major parts, but because of the nature of the subject there is a certain amount of overlap and readers interested in only one aspect of school crime and disruption are encouraged to review entries in all four parts.

- Part I--Overview: Nature and Extent of the Problem. These studies describe the cost of school crimes--primarily vandalism and arson--both in dollars and in psychosociological terms. Congressional reports are included.

- Part II--The Students: Misbehavior and Traditional Discipline. The documents in this section include studies of the causes and manifestations of student misbehavior. The effect of traditional school discipline methods--corporal punishment and suspension--on students is included as are several discussions of students' rights.

- Part III--School Programs: Multiple Approaches. This section includes a sampling of curriculum changes, teaching methods, student-based discipline, alternative schools, programs for handling known offenders, and other innovative strategies that schools have to developed to reduce crime and disruption.

- Part IV--School Buildings: Physical Security. The use of police and security guards on the premises is described, together with a variety of anti-intrusion hardware and systems.

To put the problem in proper perspective, the Executive Summary of the National Institute of Education study, Violent Schools--Safe Schools, is reprinted as Appendix C, following a list of organizations currently working in the field.

All of the documents cited in this bibliography have been selected from the collection of the National Criminal Justice Reference Service. Information about how to obtain these documents may be found on the following page.

HOW TO OBTAIN THESE DOCUMENTS

All of the documents in this bibliography are included in the collection of the National Criminal Justice Reference Service. The NCJRS Reading Room (Suite 211, 1015 20th Street, NW., Washington, D.C.) is open to the public from 9 a.m. to 5 p.m. Many of the documents cited in this bibliography may be found in public and organizational libraries. All of the documents cited are also available in at least one of the following three ways:

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PART I--OVERVIEW
NATURE AND EXTENT OF THE PROBLEM

1. BLOCH, A. M. Combat Neurosis in Inner-City Schools. American Journal of Psychiatry, v.135, n. 2:1189-1192. October 1978.
MICROFICHE (NCJ 51424)

A study of the psychological and psychophysiological effects of school violence on 253 classroom teachers in Los Angeles, California, showed that their reactions to long-term stress were similar to combat neurosis. This paper was presented to the 130th annual meeting of the American Psychiatric Association, May 4, 1977. The patients selected for the study, 158 females and 95 males from inner-city schools who were victims of varying psychological and physical trauma, were evaluated between 1971 and 1976. Medical records were reviewed preceding each psychiatric evaluation of the patient's ego functioning, attitudes, current life situation, and the presence of any predisposing factors. A battery of psychological tests also was issued. Medical results showed that a majority of the patients had extensive medical histories representing 2-10 years of psychophysiological response to continued stress, and clinical evaluation indicated that 28 percent of the patients had sustained actual physical assault on campus, although most injuries were minor. Almost all patients presented some manifestations of long-term stress. Psychological testing generally indicated that the patients were obsessional, passive, idealistic, dedicated persons who were unable to cope with, or understand, the violence directed at them. Levels of anxiety and depression were consistently high with a tendency to focus upon various somatic expressions of anxiety. Factors predisposing to neurosis in military personnel were applicable, primarily centering around an impaired ability to deal effectively with fear or anger. Environmental stress factors identified were threats of murder and rape, actual physical assault and injury directed at teachers, and theft, arson, and vandalism of their property. Campus violence not directed at teachers included bombings, theft and vandalism, the presence of gang members and campus vagrants, and the presence of weapons on campus. Teachers reported no support from the administration when a disruptive child was reported, a policy of discouraging teachers to discuss incidents with other faculty members, and a tendency to deny requests for transfer. It is recommended that psychological training be given to teachers to prepare them for stressful situations and that programs and policy be enacted to support teacher morale. A crisis intervention team composed of teachers and a psychiatrist should be assigned to each school. Data on physical complaints reported are included and references are provided.

2. BRENTON, M. School Vandalism. Today's Education, v. 64, n. 2:82, 85. March-April 1975. (NCJ 34924)

The extent, nature, and costs of school vandalism, arson, and theft are discussed and successful antivandalism programs used around the country are detailed. The antivandalism programs described include using security measures (school "sitters," and after-school private patrols), enlisting school personnel (student/teacher discussions on vandalism), getting students involved (antivandalism campaigns and student patrols), and involving parents and school neighbors (crime reporting programs and parent-observer programs). A list of references is included.

3. CALIFORNIA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. Report on Conflict and Violence in California's High Schools. Sacramento, 1973. 36 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 27653)

The California Task Force on the Resolution of Conflict inquired into the extent and nature of conflict and violence in that State's high schools. To carry out its investigative responsibility, the task force sought to identify factors which could contribute to tension-provoking and conflict-producing situations and to identify those plans and programs designed to alleviate or remediate such situations. Specifically, the task force sought to collect data of an objective and subjective nature on separate incidents of conflict and tension and to organize the data in a manner which would allow for a comprehensive assessment of the nature and prevalence of the incidents; and, to identify programs and procedures that have proven effective in preventing and ameliorating conflict on high school campuses. The task force used six major sources of information to accomplish its objectives: surveys, interviews, documents, newspaper reports, workshops, and emergency plans. The task force conducted a mail survey of over 300 California high schools and collected onsite responses to an attitude scale from approximately 1,000 persons in 32 schools. These administrators, students, teachers, parents, and community representatives were also interviewed, as were more than 60 scholars, public agency representatives, and government officials.

4. EMRICH, R. Safe School Study Report to the Congress: Evaluation and Recommendations. Crime and Delinquency, v. 24, n. 3:266-276. July 1978. (NCJ 49002)

The methodology and programmatic implications of the Safe School Study are examined, and recommendations are given in the areas of legislation, Federal support, and research needs. Methodological procedures are deemed inadequate in the areas of identification of serious incidents in schools, assurance of validity and reliability, extent and prevalence

of school crime interpretation and weighting of data, statistical analysis, and the student questionnaire. Despite these methodological problems, the author's knowledge of the subject from other sources leads him to conclude that the most important findings of the study are essentially accurate. There is concurrence with the report's emphasis on such factors as the governance of the school, its educational quality, and its perceived relevance to the student population as among the core issues in developing safe schools. In the area of legislation, it is recommended that an authorization bill be enacted with the following features: (1) creation of a small unit within the Office of Education to be responsible for training, action research, and community development, together with other efforts to alleviate the school crime problem; (2) creation of a measurement capability within the National Criminal Justice Information and Statistics Service of LEAA; and (3) establishment of a coordination of Federal effort role for the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. Principles governing Federal support of attempts to make schools safe are suggested, and research needs are identified in the areas of regular surveys of the school crime problem, evaluating good practices, consciousness-raising of communities, school boards, and school administrators concerning the problem, and the primary prevention of school crime. Under the latter topic, short reviews of promising programs are provided.

5. GEBHART, R. More Than Just a Place To Come. (Motion Picture). San Francisco, 1975. 20 min., color, 16 mm. (NCJ 36168)

This documentary investigates school violence and vandalism--the causes, effects, and programs for change in elementary, junior high, and high schools. The film records scenes surrounding a tragic murder on a school playground and two $250,000 school arson fires. Students (elementary through high school), teachers, parents, administrators, judges, and police talk about the atmosphere of fear and hostility in schools and then demonstrate what can be done to bring peace and tranquility back into the classroom.

6. GOODMAN, M. E. Violence in Our Schools: What To Know About It; What To Do About It. Columbia, Maryland, National Committee for Citizens in Education, 1975. 52 p. (NCJ 29071)

This handbook is designed to promote community awareness, initiative, and action toward the serious problem of violence in public schools. The handbook provides a complete action manual to any citizen, group, or agency that is concerned with recognizing the symptoms of school violence and then taking effective collective measures to eliminate it. Steps covered include the following: how to spot early warning signs; which public service agencies should be contacted; how the entire community can

and should be enlisted for active support; how teachers and students can help; which training programs can be most effectively given to both the community and school personnel; and finally what physical security measures can best be utilized to protect both school facilities and students.

7. GREALY, J. School Security. Address to Conference on Violence and Vandalism in the Schools, April 29-May 1, 1978. Manhattan, Kansas State University, 1976. (NCJ 35624)

The president of the National Association of School Security Officers speaks out on the dramatic increases in violence and vandalism in the schools and on some of the methods used to combat them in Broward County, Florida. An extenuated presentation of school crime statistics and "war stories" precedes a relatively short talk about the solutions. Cooperation with local law enforcement authorities is stressed. The school security director of Broward County (Florida) regularly meets with the chiefs of all 31 law enforcement agencies to discuss school security problems. When busing was a potentially violent problem in Florida, prior preparation and planning with local police resulted in the aid of many police who volunteered for school duty. Imaginative solutions, such as entertaining the youngsters with frisbee contests and magic shows, completely avoided violent confrontations in that county. The county school system now utilizes unarmed, plainclothed, police resource persons in the schools. These persons strive for mutual respect with the students. With the exception of criminal incidents, all interventions are turned over to the school principals for appropriate handling. Training for these officers is handled by the school security dirctor of the county. Other school crimes were prevented by a student watch over the school parking lots, carried out by students in study hall periods, and a provision that schools made to allow police officers to type their reports and use phones in certain school rooms. The presence of the police car on the campuses was thought to have a deterrent effect. For the entire series of tapes from the Violence and Vandalism Conference, see NCJ 35621, 35623-35627, 35629-35635, 35637, 35638, and 35640-35645.

8. GREENBERG, B. School Vandalism: Its Effects and Paradoxical Solutions. Crime Prevention Review, v. 1, n. 2:11-18. January 1974. (NCJ 15417)

Pressures on schools resulting from increased vandalism, the results of some methods instituted to reduce vandalism, and the need for evaluation and cooperation in antivandalism measures are reviewed. The economic costs attributable to vandalism--property destruction and theft, security and insurance protection--are first discussed. Three antivandalism measures which have produced paradoxical results are described. It is stated that the installation of security devices and alarms, and the target hardening of schools through bars and metal grilles have in many cases failed to work or deter vandalism. Similarly, exterior lighting of schools has been found to have little deterrent effect in many cases. Attempts to involve youths in the school through

opening schools for extracurricular activities also have been shown to have little or no effect. The need for program design, evaluation criteria, and education and law enforcement mutual support is reviewed. A list of alternative measures which could be employed to counter vandalism is provided.

9. KEMBLE, E. Violence in the Schools and Public/School Policies. In McPartland, J. M. and E. L. McDill, Eds., Violence in Schools: Perspectives, Programs, and Positions. Lexington, Massachusetts, D.C. Heath and Company, 1977. MICROFICHE (NCJ 46702)

The topic of school violence as well as the public and school policies which have an impact on several important social issues are addressed. This speech was made at the annual meeting of the Council for Educational Development and Research, December 1975. The larger social issues are school suspensions, the distinction between youth and adult crime, the question of who is to blame for student actions, and which institutions and individuals should be held responsible for what takes place in schools. Youth crime in the schools is high and on the rise; its cost to the schools is estimated to be about $600 million per year. A series of court decisions which define students' rights and a number of reports which criticize the public schools for the way they handle disruptive students are also discussed. Another aspect of the problem of school violence relates to a reanalysis of how the courts should deal with youth crime. While not primarily a school question, the two are closely related. It is concluded that school violence is not simply a school problem, but reflects and is linked to larger social problems.

10. KOCH, E. L. School Vandalism and Strategies of Social Control. Urban Education, v. 10, n. 1:54-72. April 1975. (NCJ 42695)

This paper analyzes the phenomenon of vandalism, defined as destruction and damage of school property, and offers some approaches that could be employed to reduce its occurrence. The author discusses research and theorizing that is being done in the area of school vandalism, noting the ambiguities in the concept of vandalism itself. Further, social control strategies are analyzed, along with the notion of strategic level for action or research.

11. LALLI, M. and L. SAVITZ. Fear of Crime in the School Enterprise and Its Consequences. In Wolf, E. P., Ed., Conflicts and Tensions in the Public Schools. Beverly Hills, California, Sage Publications, Inc., 1977. p. 29-44. (NCJ 45683)

Fear of crime, particularly victimization on school premises, among black male juveniles and their mothers is explored, with reference to

data from a longitudinal study of 532 families in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. The 1971 survey revealed that, although a minority of all households (43 percent) and of all juveniles (46 percent) reported having been victimized in the year prior to the survey, fear of future victimization was uniformly high. Juveniles expressed particular concern about being victimized by other juveniles. A large proportion of all juveniles rated each of 13 settings (streets, schools, parks, movie houses, subways, etc.) as dangerous. School rooms (22 percent of respondents), school yards (47 percent), and school hallways (28 percent) were among settings rated as dangerous by juveniles. Most mothers expressed fear that their children would be criminally injured or robbed while at school. Thirty-nine percent of all adults said that they had tried to transfer their children to safer schools, while 42 percent of the juveniles said they wanted to be bused to school for safety reasons. The implications of alternative responses to fear of the school environment--moving to a safer area with safer schools, gang membership, truancy--are considered. Supporting data are included.

12. LOSSES DUE TO VANDALISM, ARSON, AND THEFT IN PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEMS, 1972-1973. Arlington, Virginia, Educational Research Service, Inc., 1974. 20 p. (NCJ 36791)

Results of a survey of a sample of public school systems for the school year 1972-73 indicated that losses due to vandalism, arson, and theft were an estimated $82.2 million. School systems were classified as large, medium, small, and very small. In addition, this memo includes listings of measures that large school systems throughout the country are taking to minimize and prevent losses from these crimes.

13. McPARTLAND, J. M. and E. L. McDILL, Eds. Violence in Schools: Perspectives, Programs, and Positions. Lexington, Massachusetts, D. C. Heath and Company, 1977. 199 p. (NCJ 40798)

This collection of nine papers, provided by representatives of major educational groups and Federal agencies plus selected social scientists, presents viewpoints, analyses, and suggestions on school violence. The papers are organized into four parts. In Part 1, "Perspectives," selected social scientists from the academic community provide analyses of how research evidence may be used to understand and combat the problem of school violence. Part 2, "Programs," describes innovative practical approaches used by some school systems to deal with student offenses. The emphasis in Part 3, "Positions," is on general assessments of the problem by national educational interest groups, professional associations, and Federal agencies. "Summaries," Part 4, attempts to tie together some of these themes and to reflect the variety of ways to address the problems based on the range of concerns and talents available. A 15-page bibliography and an index are included.

14. MOOREFIELD, S. North, South, East, and West Side Story. American Education, v. 13, n. 1:12-16. January-February 1977. (NCJ 45935)

Recounting incidents of 25 years of student vandalism and terrorism, the article explores the scope of the problem today and efforts to reduce its growing fiscal and emotional costs. In the 1950's, youth gangs such as those popularized by the play "West Side Story," staked out a neighborhood territory and protected it againsts competing gangs. Knives, chains, and clubs were used in fighting rival gangs. Today's gangs are drastically different in their orientation. It is estimated that New York City alone has 350 gangs with a total membership of 20,000, that $13 million is spent annually to replace or repair gang-damaged school property, and that 200 gang-related homicides occur each year. In some large cities, youth gangs regularly take control of school cafeterias, playgrounds, and hallways, and threaten teachers and administrators who try to intervene. Although student vandalism and violence have become grave nationwide problems, a majority of school systems are acting decisively to reverse the trend. School security measures are being enhanced; new schools are being designed with windows only on the upper floors; typewriters, movie projectors, and other expensive equipment are either bolted down or locked up after hours. Most schools now employ extensive night lighting and sophisticated electronic intruder alarm systems. Student security councils have been formed and volunteers chosen by the student body to patrol parking lots and locker areas, monitor school dances, and work with the principal and the school security force in developing overall security measures. A police-school liaison program also has been successful. A nonuniformed officer specially trained in youth psychology and delinquency prevention is assigned to each high school. The creation of cheerful learning environments and the establishment of alternative schools are other deterrent methods which may help to relieve the boredom and alienation that contribute to the incidence of vandalism.

15. NEILL, S. B. Violence and Vandalism: Current Trends in School Policies and Programs. Arlington, Virgina, National School Public Relations Association, 1975. 80 p. (NCJ 31919)

A comprehensive overview is presented of the nature, extent, and possible causes of school violence and vandalism. Methods of coping with and preventing these forms of behavior also are discussed. Statistical information on school violence and vandalism rates and costs is first provided. Possible causes for these behaviors such as drugs, poor social conditions, availability of dangerous weapons, the decline of discipline, disinterest of teachers and parents, and excessive exposure to violence in the media are reviewed. A special chapter detailing the unique problems of the big city schools in this area is provided. Suggestions are then offered for violence and vandalism control using

such methods as improved security measures, public relations, stronger and more durable construction materials, and improved school architectural designs. Methods of coping with such problems as assaults on teachers, intruders, racial confrontations, student assaults, bomb threats, and arson are outlined as well. Several successful violence and vandalism control projects are briefly described. Also discussed are methods of involving the community in the schools, the security force, and the role of police in the schools.

16. PATTERSON, L. B. Prosecutor's Handbook for School Administrators, rev. ed. Pontiac, Michigan, Oakland County Office of the Prosecuting Attorney, 1975. 223 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 45954)

Over 28 problems that school administrators and staff could face during the course of a school year are analyzed; detailed guidelines for appropriate action are given, based on Michigan law. This handbook was prepared by the Prosecutor's Office of Oakland County, Michigan, to help school personnel handle common legal problems they face in the course of their duties. The first section, "Juvenile Court Practices, Procedures and Services," gives an overview of agencies which principals and counselors can call for help with problems of truancy, incorrigible behavior, or parental failure to enforce school attendance laws. The chapter on dependency and neglect emphasizes that under Michigan law, schools must report suspected child abuse and neglect. Typical signs of such neglect are listed. The court process followed in child abuse cases and the obligation of the school to help provide evidence is described in detail. Specific chapters cover incorrigible behavior, attendance laws, alcohol abuse, smoking and drug abuse in the schools, bomb threats, school security, traffic accidents involving minors, and school responsibility while transporting students on official activities. School liaison with police and courts in felony and misdemeanor cases is essential for effective prosecution; suggestions are made for improving liaison. Indepth treatment is also given to unauthorized persons in the schools, handling of disturbances in such a way as not to escalate the confrontation, and student rights. Michigan law regarding search and seizure of student property, interrogation of students, and control and custody of evidence is summarized. Under Michigan law students have no legal right to protest locker searches, and administrators have no duty to advise students of their rights before questioning them. However, administrators are advised to be aware of the "student rights" movement and to treat juveniles with the same care as would be extended to an adult under similar circumstances. Civil liability of school officials under various circumstances is explored. In 1975, the Michigan Supreme Court held that while school officials are entitled to a qualified good-faith immunity from damages if all reasonable precautions are taken in the normal course of their duties, such immunity does not exist if they should have reasonably known that their actions would have violated the civil rights of the student, de-

prived the student of something of value without due process (suspension or expulsion from school without hearing, as well as confiscation of property), or resulted in damage to the student. The rights of married and/or pregnant students are discussed, as well as those of students over age 18 (i.e., adults). Appendixes list juvenile court personnel in Oakland County and county resources. Another appendix contains a series of posters illustrating various aspects of the juvenile code. These posters present the law in simple language, with illustrations.

17. RUBEL, R. J. Unruly School: Disorders, Disruptions, and Crimes. Lexington, Massachusetts, D. C. Heath and Company, 1977. 205 p. (NCJ 45307)

This study examines trends in secondary school violence, particularly the kinds, frequency, and intensity of misbehaviors and the schools' responses to those misbehaviors, from 1950 to 1975. The organization of the study itself is described--its purposes, methods, and definitions of terms used. Studies which have already been performed concerning disruptions and crimes in schools, discipline, costs, public concern, and related areas are reviewed. Each of the three major areas of school violence--disorders, disruptions, and crimes--are treated separately. Disorders are noncriminal acts committed by individuals in violation of school rules. Disciplinary action is usually carried out entirely under the authority of the school itself. The subject is considered from the viewpoints of pupils, school administrators and teachers, and security officers. Major trends in disorders and schools responses are examined, and conclusions are drawn. Disruption is a group event; it is an activity designed to accomplish a planned goal or establish a point of contention, e.g., boycott. A crime is an act forbidden by public law that, if committed, can cause an adult to be arrested; juvenile status offenses are excluded from this category. Differing points of view, major trends, and conclusions regarding each category are presented. Overall conclusions and recommendations are summarized, and supporting data are given in graphic form. Appendixes summarize major social and educational activity relating to juveniles between 1950 and 1975 and furnish an incident report form. Author and subject indexes are provided, and references are given for each chapter.

18. RUBEL, R. J., Ed. HEW's (Health, Education, and Welfare) Safe School Study: What It Says and What It Means for Teachers and Administrators. College Park, Maryland, Institute For Reduction of Crime, Inc., 1978. 51 p. (NCJ 49756)

Significant findings and passages of the Safe School Study are presented, and practical implications are discussed. The first part of the monograph, a reprint of a section of the Safe School Study, discusses ways in which schools can immediately reduce violence in their buildings.

A statistical analysis of data, using multivariate factors, was conducted to determine the school's role in reducing crime and misbehavior. Several themes were found to have a relationship to the extent of safety in schools: (1) the size and impersonality of the school; (2) the character of the school's disciplinary policies; (3) student frustration with arbitrary or needlessly punitive rules; (4) the school's structure of incentives; (5) the relevance of the education to the children's needs; and (6) perceived alienation. The second part of the monograph presents a selection of findings from the study and their implications for teachers and administrators. It is noted that only about 8 percent of all school administrators report serious problems and that the problem of violence is more predominant by percentage in urban schools, but not necessarily greater numerically. There is evidence that school violence can be affected by efforts of local administrators and that the large proportion of violence and vandalism is not committed by "outsiders." Special findings of interest to teachers and to administrators are discussed, along with short-term and long-term response recommendations. The major points from the study data findings are that: fear of crime is more damaging and more pervasive than actual criminal acts; multiple victimizations--particularly of teachers--are easily observed, and deserve much more attention than they currently receive; and although crimes tend to occur in schools regardless of their location, when the magnitude of given events is considered, the problems are clearly more serious in large cities.

19. _____. Violence in Schools: Implications for Schools and School Districts. College Park, Maryland, Institute for Reduction of Crime, Inc., 1978. 64 p. (NCJ 49758)

This collection of four papers dealing with violence in schools is designed to provide guidance with respect to analysis and interpretation of violence-related problems faced by school administrators. The first paper in the volume presents a discussion of the history of criminal behavior in public secondary schools from 1950 to 1975. It deals with the development of public opinion and the growth of public concern about the increasing problem. Specific crimes, including assaults on teachers, fires, and vandalism, are analyzed individually. National statistics on the cost of crime in the schools are presented. The author then presents his views about the future implications of the problem for students, teachers, and school security offices. The second work further analyzes the issue of criminal behavior in schools. Factors considered include population trends, the development of cost data, non-uniform definitions, and controlling for dollar-value variables. The next article presents a summary of the newest findings from the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare's Safe School Study, with particular attention paid to the implications of that work. It discusses the incidence of thefts, assaults, and vandalism, as well as the costs of these crimes. A profile of a "safe school" is also presented. The

final article discusses the dilemma of educators who must concern themselves with the inevitability that some kind of violence will occur in a school. Suggestions are presented for school administrators to use in planning for violence. Indicators of potential violence are outlined. Ways to make the school more secure and protect both people and property are discussed. Possible security sources and preparation of a written set of crisis procedures are examined.

20. STROM, M. School Fires--Part of Our Overall Crime Problem. Security World, v. 11, n. 3:20-23. March 1974. (NCJ 13324)

A statistical analysis of school fires and a discussion of losses in terms of dollars and inconvenience to students are presented. Following a discussion of school fire statistics which reveal an increase in incendiary fires over the past 5 years, the author focuses on the burden of such incidences on the taxpayer. Comments are made on equipment, such as automatic sprinkler systems, which should be maintained in schools and on particular cases of school fires in the Washington, D.C., area.

21. STUDY OF SCHOOL FIRES. Boston, Massachusetts, National Fire Protection Association, 1973. 19 p. (NCJ 38077)

Brief descriptions of major school fires categorized by structure, type of fire, fire-fighting resources, and evacuation procedures are presented. The school fires described in the following abstracts were selected because each of them illustrates one or more important aspects of fire safety. Some are interesting primarily because of their cause. Others demonstrate the importance of evacuation and fire drills, automatic fire detection and sprinkler systems, and proper structural design, construction, and maintenance. At the end of this report are 5 statistical tables summarizing 155 school fires reported to the National Fire Protection Association during 1971 and 1972, together with with a list of school fires since 1900 which have involved a large loss of life.

22. U.S. CONGRESS. House Select Committee on Narcotics and Drug Abuse. Oversight Hearings on Federal Drug Strategy. Hearings Before the Select Committee on Narcotics Abuse and Control, 95th Congress, 1st Session; September 23, October 6, 12, November 15-16, 1977. Washington, 1977. 659 p. (NCJ 50950)

Representatives from the Federal agencies which deal with various facets of illegal drug-related activity present testimony regarding the status of Federal drug abuse and control policy and action. The subcommittee

before which the testimony was presented had conducted extensive hearings 1 year prior to the 1977 sessions and had issued an interim report containing recommendations for improving Federal drug strategy. The purpose of the 1977 hearings was to determine what progress, if any, had been made since that report was issued. Dr. Peter Bourne, Director of the Office of Drug Abuse Policy (ODAP) and Special Assistant to the President for Health Issues, presents an overview of ODAP activities and Federal drug strategy. A representative of the Office of Management and Budget discusses the Carter administration's plans for reorganizing the Executive Office of the President--plans which included elimination of ODAP. Other testimony covers the following subjects: Federal efforts to reduce the demand for illegal drugs (drug abuse treatment and prevention); the effectiveness of drug abuse research; domestic drug-related law enforcement; regulatory and compliance activities; border management and interdiction; and international narcotics control. Among the approximately 20 witnesses to present testimony are representatives from the following agencies: the National Institute on Drug Abuse, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (and other drug-related divisions of that agency); the Drug Enforcement Administration, U.S. Department of Justice (and other drug-related divisions); the Internal Revenue Service; the U.S. Customs Service; the U.S. Department of State; the U.S. Coast Guard; the Immigration and Naturalization Service; and the U.S. General Accounting Office.

23. U.S. CONGRESS. Senate Subcommittee To Investigate Juvenile Delinquency. School Violence and Vandalism: Models and Strategies for Change. Hearing Before the Senate Subcommittee To Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, September 17, 1975. Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976. 1,079 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 36422)
Stock No. 052-070-03470-0

Testimony and other materials concerning the rapidly escalating nature of school violence and vandalism and on ways to address the problem are presented. Witnesses included representatives of the Children's Defense Fund, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the National Committee for Citizens in Education, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and the New York Civil Liberties Union. Appended materials include numerous newspaper and magazine articles, studies from books and pamphlets, documents dealing with student rights and suspension procedures, and two alternative program directories.

24. _____. Senate Subcommittee To Investigate Juvenile Delinquency. School Violence and Vandalism: The Nature, Extent, and Cost of Violence and Vandalism in Our Nation's Schools. Hearings Before the Senate Subcommittee To Investigate Juvenile Delinquency, April 16 and June 17, 1975. Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1976. 607 p.
MICROFICHE (NCJ 36423)
Stock No. 052-070-03484-0

Testimony and other materials on school violence and vandalism are presented. Witnesses include teachers, students, school security directors, principals, and representatives of special interest organizations. Appended materials include supplemental reports, newspaper articles (divided by region), and newspaper editorial comments.

25. U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE. National Institute of Education. School Crime and Disruption. E. Wenk and N. Harlow, Eds. Davis, California, Responsible Action, 1978. 238 p. (NCJ 51386)

This anthology considers issues related to school crime, its causes, and its probable solutions. The papers focus on practical approaches to school crime prevention and control. The collection begins with two papers describing approaches to the study of crime in schools. A strategy for basing prevention programs on the findings of research tailored to particular schools is outlined, and a model of the high schools' social organization is presented offering a conceptual framework for studying and preventing school crime. The second category of papers suggests coherent theories of causation and practical suggestions for altering conditions in schools and society which contribute to school crime. One author concludes that delinquent behavior in school is generated by negative school experiences and resulting low self-esteem. Characteristics of an alternate school program designed to provide students with positive experiences are identified. Study findings on the aesthetics of vandalism, or the factors which make vandalism enjoyable, are presented; and changes in design, construction, and school response are recommended for reducing incentives to vandalism. The lack of meaningful roles for youth in society is discussed also as a causal factor in school crime, and the author recommends imaginative ways of diverting children through community-beneficial activities. The effects of various sources of social power on children are considered, and it is suggested that students attack the school because they cannot deal effectively with their role in society. The effects of labeling on students and the benefits of increasing links between schools and communities are discussed. The final category of papers concentrates on specific programs or actions to be taken to reduce school crime. These include human relations training programs for heightening awareness of racial biases in teacher-student relationships, school governance models dispersing educational decisionmaking throughout the community, smaller schools, techniques for negotiating school conflicts, and programs for training specialists to work with disruptive students.

26. _____. National Institute of Education. Violent Schools, Safe Schools: The Safe School Study Report to the Congress, Volume 1. M. R. Asner and J. Broschart, Eds. Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978. 381 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 45988) Stock No. 017-080-01830-6

Charts, graphs, and a narrative report present findings of a study to determine the number of schools affected by crime or violence, type and seriousness of the crimes, and how school crime can be prevented. The Safe School Study was undertaken by the National Institute of Education in response to a congressional request to the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Data are based on a mail survey of more than 4,000 schools and onsite surveys of 642 schools, plus case studies of 10 schools. Statistical methods used to overcome sampling error and project figures are detailed. It was found that although school violence and vandalism increased during the 1960's, they have leveled off since the early 1970's, and there are some hints of a decline. Still, about 8 percent of the nation's schools have a serious problem with crime, secondary schools being in this category more than elementary schools. In the Northeast and West, schools are more likely to have problems than schools in the North Central and Southern States. Risks of personal violence are higher in junior high schools than in senior high schools and are higher in larger communities. About 2.4 million secondary school students (11 percent) have something stolen from them in a typical month. About 1.3 percent (282,000) report being attacked each month. Relatively few are injured seriously enough to need medical attention. Among secondary school teachers, about 12 percent (130,000) have something stolen in a typical month. Some 5,200 are physically attacked, about 1,000 needing medical attention. Around 6,000 have something taken from them by force or threats. Young teenagers run a greater risk of violence in school than elsewhere except in high-crime neighborhoods, where schools are safer than the surrounding communities. Over 25 percent of all schools suffer vandalism in a given month with an average cost per act of $81. Ten percent of schools are burglarized at a cost per burglary of $183. The annual cost of school crime is an estimated $200 million. Most offenses are committed by current students. Victims and offenders are generally of the same age, sex (usually male), and race. The chances of interracial violence are highest in schools where students of one race outnumber those of another. Violence temporarily increases after court-ordered desegregation, but later the schools return to their former patterns. Suggested crime prevention measures include specially designed locks, safes, and window and door alarms. Better training for school security personnel is also recommended. In the case studies the single most important difference between safe schools and violent schools was found to be a strong, dedicated principal who served as a role model for both students and teachers, and who instituted a firm, fair, and consistent system of discipline. An Executive Summary (NCJ 45149) is reprinted as an appendix to this bibliography.

27. U.S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. Responses to Collective Violence in Threat or Act, 2 Volumes. By S. D. Vestermark. McLean, Virginia, Human Sciences Research, Inc., 1971. 764 p. (NCJ 10795)

Collective violence in schools, extremist targets and tactics, youth gang violence, and strategies for responding to these actions are discussed. The six chapters of this report review research and development on the prevention and control of collective violence. For the purpose of this study, collective violence was defined as the threat or use of force by a collectivity of individuals that results or is intended to result in the injury or forcible restraint of a person or persons or the destruction or forcible seizure of property. The first volume considers responses to collective violence in high schools, grade schools, colleges and universities. Individual sections discuss police-school relations, and police planning before, during, and after violent incidents. The author notes that the high schools and grade schools are the emerging problem areas for the early 1970's. Appended material in volume 1 includes guidelines for school security in Prince Georges County, Maryland. Initial sections in the second volume review and define violence as it occurs now and has occurred in the past. Common elements in extremist groups are noted, and political, social, and economic ideologies are discussed. Additional material covering the 1971 May Day demonstration in Washington, D.C., examines vital urban processes as extremist targets, dilemmas facing law enforcement and criminal justice officials, and lessons learned from the demonstrations. Part of the second volume focuses on youth gang violence. Related issues deal with strategies and tactics for dealing with youth such as limiting provocation and redirecting pressures. The use of the youth gang as a form of community organization is also explored. The appendix contains an illustrated May Day tactical manual and an improvised munitions handbook. Underground manual references are included.

28. U.S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention. Planning Assistance Programs To Reduce School Violence and Disruption. By M. Marvin, J. Connolly, R. McCann, S. Temkin, and P. Henning. Philadelphia, Research for Better Schools, Inc., 1976. 156 p.
MICROFICHE (NCJ 32631)

This information base can be used by LEAA in programs designed to help school personnel cope more effectively with violence. The first task was to determine the nature and extent of the problem of school violence. To obtain this information, project staff conducted a review of currently available literature on the problem. Information providing additional insight into the problem was gathered in the three working conferences as well as in a telephone survey of educators involved in programs designed to reduce the problem. The second task was to determine what

efforts are being undertaken in schools to reduce school violence. To obtain this information, project staff conducted a telephone survey of educators involved in projects or activities designed to ameliorate the problem. Additional information on such activities was gathered in the literature search and at the working conferences. The third task was to determine what kinds of help schools need. To obtain this information, project staff conducted a series of working conferences with educators to determine how they defined the problem, learn what approaches they used to attack the problem, and determine what kinds of assistance educators need. Further suggestions on the kinds of help educators need were collected in the literature search and telephone survey. The fourth task was to determine how other Federal programs help schools to solve specific problems. To obtain this information, project staff conducted a review of six Federal assistance programs and interviewed a small number of U.S. Office of Education staff.

29. U.S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. Survey of Techniques Used To Reduce Vandalism and Delinquency in Schools. By H. C. Olson and J. B. Carpenter. McLean, Virginia, Research Analysis Corporation, 1971. 142 p. (NCJ 00566)

This survey presents a profile of the school vandalism problem and provides a compilation of opinions and suggestions of school administrators to lessen the problem. The survey sample consisted of 1,048 secondary schools in 50 States. Methods used were review of literature, contact with education agencies, and survey of larger public secondary schools. Vandalism was examined from aspects of facilities, surveillance, operations, and environment. The results are of two types--qualitative information from administrators and quantitative information from surveys. Statistics are cited on vandalism, its distribution, and costs. The survey questionnaire is presented with tabulated answers and analysis.

30. WHAT KIDS DO TO SCHOOLS AND WHAT SCHOOLS DO TO KIDS, PART 1. Washington, National Public Radio, 1978. 20 p. (NCJ 51418)

The transcript of a public radio program on the problem of violence, vandalism, and discipline in the schools includes comments by students, teachers, and administrators at a California high school. The transcript is from a program called "Options in Education," coproduced by National Public Radio and the Institute for Educational Leadership of the George Washington University (Washington, D.C.). Students and school personnel at George Washington High School in Los Angeles, California, are interviewed about violence and discipline problems at the school, primarily the problem of student assaults on teachers and on each other. The school's principal, who has been assaulted by students twice, advocates

restraint in handling discipline problems, noting that he could have avoided assault had he handled the situations better. A teachers' union president says that administrators need to take a hard stand on student violence. Some students suggest that most of their white teachers are afraid of black students simply because of racial stereotypes. One teacher notes the extent of the school's absenteeism problem. Students discuss the problem of theft and other crimes perpetrated by students on each other. Two teachers who have been assaulted criticize the school's security program, and a school security agent counters student complaints of brutality and teachers' claims that the agents are not doing their jobs. The school's principal expresses skepticism about frequently posed solutions to the problem of school violence, noting the need not to exaggerate the problem, and the importance of taking a positive approach in handling the problem where it does exist. A black teacher, beaten when he attempted to break up a fight between two students, explains why he feels that teachers cannot be expected to play the role of police officer in the school. The program closes with an interview with a senior student who explains why he seldom attends classes and yet expects to graduate. The student is given a passage to read. His difficulty is said to reflect a different kind of crime: the crime of failing to teach children to read. See NCJ 51419 for the second part of the program.

31. WHAT KIDS DO TO SCHOOLS AND WHAT SCHOOLS DO TO KIDS, PART 2. Washington, National Public Radio, 1978. 35 p. (NCJ 51419)

Comments on the problem of violence in the schools and on approaches to combating the problem are presented in the transcript of a public radio program. The program is from the series "Options in Education," coproduced by National Public Radio and the Institute for Educational Leadership of the George Washington University (Washington, D.C.). Part 1 of the program (see NCJ 51418) presented the views of students and school personnel at a California high school experiencing problems with student assaults on teachers and on each other. Part 2 focuses on the findings of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare "Safe School Study," conducted by the National Institute of Education (NIE). Three State superintendents of education comment on violence in the schools, suggesting that the schools are basically safe, or at least safer than they once were. Findings from the NIE study are cited by the superintendents and by the director of NIE. The study concluded that strong leadership by school principals, rather than stronger school security, is the key to making schools safe. Congresswoman Shirley Chisholm suggests that the study's estimates of the extent of violence and vandalism in the schools are conservative, noting that school principals were the primary source of data. The Director of the Education Policy Research Institute points out that testimony by school security agents at congressional hearings on school violence and vandalism tended to exaggerate the problem. Excerpts from other testimony at the hearings reflect disagreement as to the effectiveness of various approaches

to the problem of school violence. School security and discipline programs in Maryland, Michigan, and New York are decribed. The concept of creative discipline through inschool suspension is discussed, and the inschool suspension program employed by the Chicago, Illinois, public schools is described. Criticism of the Chicago program's isolation of problem students is also noted. It is concluded that, although students do approximately $200 million worth of damage to the schools each year, the schools are, for the most part, safe. It is further concluded that the question remains as to whether the largely autocratic school system provides the best possible preparation for life in a democracy. A report of the findings of the Safe School Study is appended.

32. WILLIAMS, A. M. JR. Vandalism. Management Information Service Report, v. 8, n. 5: entire issue. May 1976. (NCJ 45656)

The status, costs, and motivating factors of vandalism are examined, and school and community programs aimed at reducing vandalism are reviewed and evaluated. Vandalism directed against schools and public and private facilities is costing taxpayers millions of dollars annually. Vandalism may be categorized as acquisitive, tactical, ideological, vindictive, playful, and malicious. Factors associated with the commission of property offenses may include the offender's perception of restricted opportunities, subcultural value and attitude differences, prolonged adolescent dependence, personal adjustment or character disorders, and internalization of labeling and stereotyping. Since few vandals are ever caught and even fewer face prosecution for their offense, neither restitution nor prosecution presents viable approaches to reducing the incidence of vandalism. Vandal watch programs have been instituted by a number of school systems and have reduced vandalism a reported 90 percent or more by utilizing mobile home residents on the site as deterrents. A number of systems have been instituted with varying success, which use security personnel, alarm, and space detection devices either singly or in combination. School and community education programs have also been instituted to combat vandalism. Such programs have used parent/pupil forums and newsletters and an informant reward system. A particularly comprehensive education program at a Los Angeles school with a large bilingual pupil population has incorporated an annual home visit by teachers, a school-sponsored community luncheon, an open-door school visitation policy, a parent/teacher men's club, a block parent program, and a school neighbor security watch program. Innovative environmental and architectural designs which discourage vandalism and strict enforcement of vandalism acts and penalties have also been tried. General suggestions, utilizing a variety of these approaches, are listed for deterring vandalism in the schools, at recreational sites, and on municipal transport systems. It is concluded that, although numerous cost-efficient steps may be taken to reduce vandalism, the prevention of

vandalism will require the more difficult task of combating apathy, isolation, and the loss of family and community values. Thirty references are included.

33. WILSON, J. Q. Crime in Society and Schools, In McPartland, J. M. and E. L. McDill, Eds., Violence in Schools: Perspectives, Programs, and Positions. Lexington, Massachusetts, D.C. Heath and Company, 1977. p. 43-49. (NCJ 51425)

The testing of practical approaches to enhancing the security of schools is suggested as an alternative to continuing ideological debate over the causes of and solutions to school crime. As has been the case with crime in society, discussion of school crime is based not on analysis and evaluation, but on personal ideology and organizational and institutional interests. One view is that there is no problem with school crime or that the problem is exaggerated. The opposite view is that schools themselves are to blame because they create violence. Yet other views are that the rights of school children are more important than the problem of school violence and that physical security devices and police must be installed throughout the schools. There is also the favorite all-purpose solution: concentration should involve eliminating the root causes of school violence. The proponents of these various views are not communicating with each other. The problem of school crime exists, its causes are not understood and are not likely to be understood very well, and the problem cannot be readily eliminated. School crime is one reflection of a profound shift in values and institutional attachments that is producing rebellion. Without unacceptable reductions in personal liberty and unacceptable intrusions into family life or the indoctrination of youth, this change in values is not likely to be reversed. In the meantime, it is possible to experiment with practical, alternative solutions to enhancing the security of schools so that education can take place reasonably free of distractions and threats. Such efforts should be directed at determining who is actually victimized in school settings and under what circumstances, and at experimenting with alternative security arrangements in schools and with alternative school building plans. There should also be an effort to examine longitudinally what happens to youths who take various "routes" in and out of school, with a view to abandoning the notion that high school is the one funnel through which all young persons must be processed identically. It is also necessary to realize that crime does not occur in the schools in isolation from crime in the rest of society.

PART II – THE STUDENTS
MISBEHAVIOR AND TRADITIONAL DISCIPLINE

34. BLOCK, E. E., J. COVILL-SERVO, and M. F. ROSEN. Failing Students, Failing Schools: A Study of Dropouts and Discipline in New York State. Rochester, New York, Statewide Youth Advocacy Project, 1978. 213 p. (NCJ 52770)

This report examines the dropout rate for New York public school students, its causes, and school system responses to truancy and discipline problems. Data were drawn from interviews of dropouts and school officials. Interviews were conducted in several areas of New York State, and additional data were gathered from the records of various school district offices, from the Office of Civil Rights, and the Bureau of Educational Data Systems of the State Education Department. Estimated dropout rates for New York students in 1976 lie between 6 and 41 percent of the school population, with the rate for blacks being significantly greater than the rate for whites. Reasons given by students for dropping out of school include financial and family problems, lack of interest, academic failure, involuntary exclusion, and pregnancy. There was a pattern of academic insufficiency in all but two schools examined, according to State evaluation scores, the academic decline beginning after the 3rd grade. The most common forms of discipline used with deviant students are after-school detention and suspension. The use of suspension is examined in relation to State laws and court decisions. Reactions to its use by students and principals are considered. It was found that almost two-thirds of absences in the urban high schools examined were attributable to truancy. School attendance department functions and truancy sanctions are discussed. Sections of the report also discuss education for students over the age of 16 and for special students, including the economically disadvantaged child, students whose primary language is not English, and handicapped children. Major study findings are that the State does not provide appropriate education for students who need compensatory education or have special needs; disciplinary policies are seldom disclosed publicly and usually lack clarity; students over 16 often are excluded illegally from school; few schools provide a climate conducive to the individualization that students say they need; and the State Education Department is not monitoring the indexes of school problems adequately. Lists of recommendations are provided to counter these problems. The survey instrument, study data, and State legislation on public education are appended.

35. BLUM, R. H. Students and Drugs, Vol. 2. Washington, Joint Venture, 1969. 399 p. (NCJ 07870)

This volume, the second in a 2-volume set, focuses on the use of drugs by students. An attempt is made to determine the differences between those students who use drugs and those who do not, with particular attention being given to the characteristics and motivations of student drug users. Numerous interviews were conducted with students, examining their drug experiences, their ideologies, and their lifestyles.

Psychological tests were also employed in comparing drug users with nonusers. One chapter reports on an exploratory attempt to predict which students will begin to use drugs illegally during their college career. Although the book concentrates on college students, a study is included dealing with drug use in high schools. A chapter specifically designed to give the educational administrator an overview of student drug usage will prove to be of special interest to personnel responsible for the control of drug abuse in a school environment.

36. BOLMEIER, E. C. Legality of Student Disciplinary Practices. Charlottesville, Virginia, Miche Company, 1976. 194 p. (NCJ 51403)

This book, on the legal aspects of school discipline, discusses blame and responsibility for student misconduct and outlines the major issues involved. Confronted with escalating misconduct, disobedience, disruption, and violence by students in public schools, school officials and others find it difficult to determine causes and find effective, legal solutions. In some instances the schools themselves are blamed unduly for student misconduct. Legislatures, too, are accused frequently of being at fault for failing to pass laws authorizing and compelling school officials to apply effective disciplinary procedures. More recently, the courts have been the main target of blame for their decisions restricting school officials in the enforcement of rules and regulations concerning conduct. The problem of dealing with unruly students requires cooperative effort, especially among school personnel. Generally the term discipline refers to action taken by school authorities against a student because the student's conduct, as distinct from academic performance, falls short of certain school standards. The scope of disciplinary practices considered in the text goes beyond corporal punishment, suspension, and expulsion, to include punishment by deprivation of school privileges for failure to conform to school board rules and regulations. Specifically, the text addresses the following issues: the in loco parentis doctrine; due process and school discipline; administration of corporal punishment; exclusionary practices; and unorthodox practices of disciplining. The court cases mentioned in the text represent a sampling of judicial decisions dealing with disciplinary practices. A bibliography, table of cases, and an index are included.

37. BUSS, W. G. Legal Aspects of Crime Investigation in the Public Schools. Topeka, Kansas, National Organization of Legal Problems of Education, 1971. 77 p. (NCJ 12636)

The legal restraints on administrators investigating school-related crime are discussed. The monograph presents suggested crime prevention models, such as the presence of law enforcement officers in the school, informants, use of weapons, and searches. Possible legal claims

by students and citizens are predicted reactions to abuse of these models. A detailed analysis of student locker searches is offered to guide the official confronted with a situation where such a search may be appropriate.

38. CARY, E. What Every Teacher Should Know About Student Rights. Washington, National Education Association, 1975. 41 p. (NCJ 52522)

An examination of students' rights in court cases is presented for teachers. Courts increasingly are viewing students as citizens with constitutional rights rather than as minors whose rights are modified by their age. The basic student right is the right to a free education. This includes mentally and physically handicapped children. Students have the right to due process of law in school suspension incidents. Courts argue that school officials and employees can act as parents only for the purpose of educating the child. Supervision of the students' social lives, personal appearance, manners, etc., is a parental responsibility. Students' rights pertaining to personal appearance, marital status, and grades and diplomas are listed. In general, schools are prohibited from using excessive corporal punishment to discipline students and are prohibited from punishing students for off-campus activities. Students in school have the right to remain silent when detained by police and to remain free from search if no warrant is available. Discrimination against students on racial or sex bases is prohibited with regard to school attendance and participation in federally funded programs and activities. Privacy requirements regarding school records were mandated in 1974, and in 1969, the U.S. Supreme Court, in the case of Tinker v. Des Moines (Iowa) Independent School District, upheld the right of students to free expression within certain guidelines. Armbands and insignia, school newspaper content, demonstrations, flag saluting, and religious exercises are considered with regard to this ruling. A bibliography and a list of National Education Association publications concerning students' rights are provided.

39. DADE COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS. Experience of Teachers and Students With Disruptive Behavior in the Dade County Public Schools. Miami, Florida, 1976. 52 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 51420)

A study of students' and teachers' views of disruptive student behavior in the elementary, junior high, and senior high schools of Dade County, Florida, is documented. Questionnaires were sent to 519 elementary, 215 junior high, and 100 senior high school teachers. Response rates were 62, 65, and 74 percent, respectively. Data also were obtained from 52 elementary, 560 junior high, and 67 senior high school students. The teachers and students were asked about their experiences with disruptive behavior. Teachers were also asked about the

methods they used to deal with disruptive behavior. Junior high school teachers reported spending considerably more time coping with inclass disruptive behavior than did elementary or senior high school teachers. The variability of disruptive behavior from class to class was greater at the junior high school level than at the other levels. Junior high schools also had the greatest number of specific incidents reported by teachers, including those directed at teachers personally, those directed at teachers' belongings, and those directed at other students. Teachers at all levels felt that it was primarily their responsibility to handle disruptive incidents in the classroom and that school administrators were helpful mainly in providing backup assistance. The majority of teachers felt that the best solution to the problem incorporates both security systems and behavioral/educational approaches. Most of the teachers felt that disruptive behavior was intensifying, and that much of this behavior is caused by a relatively few, easily identifiable, disruptive students. According to student responses, the greatest amount of disruptive behavior takes place in the elementary schools. The students felt that they were in the greatest danger coming to or going home from school. For elementary school students, the source of this danger was perceived to be older students from nearby schools. Elementary students appear to be more likely than older students to report incidents of seriously disruptive behavior directed at them. Elementary students were more likely than junior or senior high school students to feel that their schools were safe. At all grade levels students felt that keeping outsiders away from the building was the best way to reduce disruptive behavior. Supporting data and copies of the study instruments are included.

40. DUKE, D. L. Looking at the School as a Rule-Governed Organization. 1977. 23 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 52433)

Eleven hypotheses relating to rule decisionmaking and enforcement in schools, rule priority, and consequences of rule violations are presented and defended on the basis of existing school disciplinary practices. Empirical research on schools and discipline is examined with regard to the 11 hypotheses. It is maintained that school rules, and the consequences for disobeying them, tend to be determined by those groups least subject to their applications and that rules are not communicated effectively to students or parents. Teachers find it difficult to enforce rules consistently and frequently fail to model good rule-governed behavior themselves. The rules students disobey most are those which relate least clearly to perceptions of school functions, are not communicated effectively, and are enforced least consistently. Teachers and administrators often regard school rules as ends in themselves and apply penalties for rule violations which lack logical relationship to the offenses. Accurate records of rule violations are not maintained by school authorities in general and school rules are rarely evaluated systematically. Students have few options if they disagree with a charge brought against them by school authorities. It

is maintained that the nature of most school disciplinary systems contributes to the creation of continuing student behavior problems. It is suggested that students be allowed to participate in rulemaking and rule enforcement, that rules be systematically evaluated, and research be done on causes of rule disobedience. References are provided.

41. _____. Who Misbehaves? A High School Studies Its Discipline Problems. Educational Administration Quarterly, v. 12, n. 3:65-85. Fall 1976. (NCJ 53433)

To determine if students identified as disciplinary problems have common traits distinguishable from the rest of the student body, test results and records of 78 "problem" students and 78 controls were compared. The Lewistown High School (a pseudonym) administration systematically collected data on school disciplinary problems for the 1974-1975 school year, and then identified 78 students as disciplinary problems. A control group was selected to match the experimental group and data were gathered regarding standardized test scores, grades in English and social studies, reading ability, reported behavior, and parental characteristics for the two groups. Student characteristics were grouped under the categories of family background, intelligence, scholastic abilities, vocational abilities and interests, grades, and personality traits, and compared using means, standard deviations, and "t" scores. The findings reveal that a relatively large number of the "problem" students have lower intelligence scores in elementary school tests and were identifiable as a slower group in reading, language, study skills, and mathematics by the third grade level. Reported behavior for the groups indicated that problem children were more often labeled "lazy," "aggressive," "disruptive," and "selfish," although no conclusions could be drawn in this area. It is concluded that intervention in learning problems should happen early in students' scholastic careers, and that more research is needed regarding juvenile misbehavior in a school setting and in different types of schools, (e.g., alternative and traditional schools). References are provided.

42. EVE, R. A. Study of the Efficacy and Interactions of Several Theories for Explaining Rebelliousness Among High School Students. Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology, v. 69, n. 1:115-125. Spring 1978. (NCJ 45768)

To examine the explanatory validity of three sociopsychological theories of rebelliousness (social deviance), a questionnaire was administered to 300 suburban high school pupils. The three theories examined are the strain or anomie theory, which suggests that blocked attainment of goals leads to the use of illegitimate means to achieve legitimate ends; culture conflict theory, norms of the larger or more powerful cultural group; and the internal social control theory, which

suggests that deviant or delinquent acts are performed by individuals who are free to commit such actions because their social ties with the conventional order are broken. Seven variables indicative of pupil rebelliousness were chosen from among the 10 questionnaire measures. Factor analysis indicated two dimensions of deviance, traditional (cheating, school misbehavior, fighting in school, truancy, etc.) and drug use deviance, for which deviance scales were created. Scales were also devised to measure the relative efficacy of the three theories. Regression analysis of data demonstrates that all three theoretical perspectives are able to account for at least some significant proportion of the variance in both traditional high school deviance and drug use. On the basis of the findings, a path model of interrelationships is presented from which it is hypothesized that culture conflict and strain are positively related to high school deviance in inverse proportion to the level of social control present, that there will be little or no relationship between strain and high school deviance or between culture conflict and high school deviance, and that, for those individuals low in social control, there will be a substantial association between strain and high school deviance and between culture conflict and high school deviance. Questionnaire data are found to support strongly these hypothesized relationships for drug use, but to support them less strongly for traditional deviance, i.e., social control is strongly related to lower levels of drug use, but less strongly related to lower levels of traditional deviance. It is concluded that all three theories provide some explanation for adolescent social deviance and that social control theory manifests the greatest explanatory power. The questionnaire is not included.

43. GLASSER, W. Disorders in Our Schools: Causes and Remedies. Phi Delta Kappan, v. 59, n. 5:331-333. January 1978. (NCJ 51412)

Eliminating failure and making students feel accepted and cared for are discussed as approaches to solving discipline problems in the public schools. Students who exhibit discipline problems generally have no stake in the curricular or extracurricular activities of the school. They have poor grades and do not participate in student government, athletics, and other student programs. These students behave as if they have two options: dropping out of school, or coming to school and making trouble. Because dropping out generally is not a viable alternative, these students come school and do whatever feels good once they arrive. Rules have no meaning for them. Unless these students feel that they belong in their school, they will settle for the sporadic pleasures of troublemaking and will become relatively immune to any painful consequences the school may devise. Students need to feel that they are wanted and that they can succeed. Developed by a psychiatrist to help educators solve discipline problems, a program based on the daily class meeting enables the teacher to talk with students in an interesting, intellectually enjoyable way. Done regularly and well, this procedure makes most students feel that they

are at least a part of their class. A second part of the program is an effort to eliminate failure by teaching problem students to read. Emphasis is placed on giving the students more interesting materials to read, and on recognizing that people learn to read at different rates and need to be given credit for what they accomplish. A reality therapy approach is used to deal with remaining disciplinary problems. Students are asked to evaluate their behavior and to take the responsibility for planning better behavior. For students who do not accept this responsibility, the consequences are loss of privileges and loss of freedom (inschool suspension). Schools also should urge parents to limit the television viewing of their children.

44. HYMAN, I., E. McDOWELL, and B. RAINES. Corporal Punishment and Alternatives in the Schools: An Overview of Theoretical and Practical Issues. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, National Center for the Study of Corporal Punishment and Alternatives in the Schools, 1977. 13 p. (NCJ 52428)

The historical role of corporal punishment is discussed, along with its physical and psychological effects, race and class issues, and suggested alternatives to the physical disciplining of disruptive students. Corporal punishment is defined as the infliction of pain, loss, or confinement as a penalty for some offense. Despite the disavowal of corporal punishment by so many modern societies, 47 States allow or specifically endorse its use through legislation. This may be due to surviving Calvinist attitudes as well as the long tradition of corporal punishment, stretching back 5,000 years to the schools of ancient Sumer. Some researchers suggest that the use of force on children stems from an inherent cultural belief that violence is an acceptable manner of solving problems. Others have found that among more complex societies, which have a greater incidence of stealing, slavery, aggressive gods, rigid class stratification, and wars, there is a tendency toward more punitive childrearing practices. Although the research of notable behavioral scientists (e.g., Skinner) has offered convincing proof that the systematic use of rewards and punishments is a powerful method for changing targeted behaviors, recent (1977) reviews cast doubts on the efficacy of punishment under the conditions used in public schools. Further, while an extensive review of the literature has revealed no adequate studies of the effects of corporal punishment on achievement, research on the relative effects of praise, mild criticism, and strong criticism indicates that the latter has significantly negative correlations with achievement. There is also evidence that where both suspension and corporal punishment are used, there is a tendency for selected groups (i.e., emotionally disturbed, blacks, Hispanics, poor white minorities) to be the most frequent recipients. Research has also indicated that the amount of corporal punishment may be related to the rate of school vandalism, and that in some school districts, as many as 60 percent of the teachers strike a student at least once a term. Popularly accepted beliefs about corporal punishment (e.g., occasional paddling contributes to a child's so-

cialization; corporal punishment is the only recourse for maintaining order) are listed and discussed, along with such short-range solutions as the provision of alternative experiences for bored or unreceptive students and such long-range remedies as the full involvement of students in the school decisionmaking process and alternative schools within the educational system. Tabular data and references are provided. This paper was presented at the Conference on Corporal Punishment in the Schools, held in Washington, D.C. and sponsored by the National Institute of Education.

45. PENNSYLVANIA GOVERNOR'S OFFICE. Human Relations Commission. School Discipline and Racial Conflict. By J. W. Dole. Harrisburg, 1976. 48 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 53432)

This paper describes the philosophy of the Pennsylvania Human Relations Commission on public school disciplinary policy approaches for reducing racial tension and reviews research on effects of school discipline. A school's approach to discipline critically affects the status of race relations and conflict within the school. It is recommended that schools change to less suppressive and more therapeutic and constructive forms of discipline using more open discussions between blacks and whites, teachers and students, and parents and school personnel. This theory is supported by a nationwide study on public high schools indicating that most serious disruptions occur in schools with traditionally authoritarian principals and punitive discipline systems. Studies have found that disciplinary measures, such as suspension and physical punishment, are more likely to be applied to black students than white students. Use of minimal punishment as a negative reinforcer might be appropriate in a form that will not hurt the child emotionally, academically, or physically. Counseling should exist on an informal, onsite basis for students, parents, and teachers, preferably under a name that does not suggest psychotherapy. Teachers and administrators should receive inservice training in conducting constructive discipline. School administrators should keep communications with black parents open and reexamine policies on disrespect, attendance, and fighting for unintentional discrimination and rigidity. References and an outline for responding to racial conflict are appended.

46. PIERSMA, P. Legal Rights of Secondary School Children Charged With an Act of Delinquency or Violation of School Laws. Arlington, Virginia, 1972. 63 p. (NCJ 51409)

Legal aspects of school rules, regulations, and disciplinary policies are discussed, and the juvenile court process is examined in a monograph directed to counselors and other school personnel. The monograph contributes to an understanding of the court system as it re-

lates to juvenile offenders and creates awareness of the legal rights and protective measures available to high school students. Part 1 outlines the development of the law concerning the authority of local boards of education, the reasonableness of specific rules and regulations, the exercise of suspension and expulsion, and the need for schools to adopt reasonable rules and disciplinary policies that will stand up under court review. The doctrine of in loco parentis, the regulation of children's activities, freedom of speech, dress and appearance regulations, student marriage and pregnancy, and the right to a hearing prior to suspension or expulsion are discussed, with references to court decisions and implications for school personnel. Part 2 examines the procedures of the juvenile court, addressing specific procedural questions and criticisms of the juvenile court system (the informality of procedures, stigmatization of children by court action, temporary detention practices, failure to provide effective treatment, personnel problems). Attorney participation in delinquency proceedings is discussed, as are decisions by juvenile court intake personnel. Ways in which counselors, teachers, and other school personnel may deal with truant, incorrigible, or otherwise problematic children are suggested. A model high school disciplinary code is appended.

47. RIVERS, L. W. The Disruptive Student and the Teacher. Washington, National Education Association, 1977. 40 p. (NCJ 52431)

The nature, scope, and treatment of disruptive classroom behavior are examined, with attention to objectives and techniques for its management. The precipitating basis for most disruptive behavior in the classroom is a state of distress manifested in the child resulting from conditions prevailing in the home, school, or both. The following aspects of school-related discipline problems are considered systematically: the disruptive child, the disruptive classroom, the emotionally disrupted child, the disrupted teacher, general management techniques, and calling for help. Background information is provided for each topic, along with individual sets of objectives relating to the role of the teacher in managing disruptive behavior and recommended techniques for the management of disruptive classroom behavior. A brief introduction to the nature of disruptive behavior and research findings relating to disruptive behavior also are provided, as are planning charts and references.

48. SMITH, P. V. School Suspensions: Are They Helping Children? Cambridge, Massachusetts, Children's Defense Fund, 1975. 257 p. (NCJ 34881)

This critique discusses the extent and nature of school suspensions in the United States and explores alternative disciplinary approaches which do not remove children from school. Some of the issues con-

sidered include how many children are suspended, why and how, the suspended child, racial discrimination, the purpose of suspension, and the notion of offense and due process. Case studies of suspended children are included throughout the report. The different measures some school districts are trying as alternatives to suspensions are also examined. These include behavior contracts, peer group counseling, special education programs for students with discipline problems, inschool "crisis" rooms or centers, and work-study alternatives to traditional education. This report is based on an analysis of suspension data submitted to the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare's Office for Civil Rights by 2,862 school districts, a survey of over 6,500 families in 9 States and the District of Columbia, and interviews with over 300 school officials and community leaders.

49. U.S. CONGRESS. House Select Committee on Narcotics Abuse and Control. Drug Abuse in New York City Schools: Preliminary Staff Study. House Select Committee on Narcotics Abuse and Control, January 1977. Washington, 1977. 8 p. (NCJ 40640)

This congressional staff study details the extent of drug abuse in the New York City public schools. More than 77 percent of public secondary school students have used alcohol or drugs. One-third of the student body has experimented with marijuana or other drugs. Board of Education law requires that the names of students who are addicts be turned over to the health department. In 1971, the school system established a school counseling service for addicts. Programs such as this and others that attack the problem of drug addiction are helpful in dealing with this $3.6 billion a year phenomenon.

50. U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE. National Institute of Education. Conference on Corporal Punishment in the Schools: A National Debate; Proceedings. J. H. Wise, Ed. Washington, 1977. 66 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 51400)

The proceedings of a conference on corporal punishment in the schools, held as part of a national invitational conference on child abuse, are documented. The conference, presented February 18-20, 1977, by the Child Protection Center of Children's Hospital National Medical Center, Washington, D.C., was held just after the U.S. Supreme Court heard, for the first time, oral arguments on corporal punishment in the schools. This was before the Court ruled that corporal punishment was not a violation of the constitutional prohibition against cruel and unusual punishment and that due process protections need not be accorded children before corporal punishment is used. The conference was designed to present a cross section of opinion on the subject. The proceedings report includes eight papers which review

historical and constitutional considerations; debate philosophical, moral, ethical, and practical issues inherent in the question of corporal punishment; report on corporal punishment practice and excesses in the classroom; survey the status of State laws regarding corporal punishment; appraise the effects of physical punishment on children's behavior and emotions; and suggest a theoretical conceptualization for a cross-cultural examination of corporal punishment. An open forum dialog, which included representatives of three national associations (the American Federation of Teachers, the American Psychological Association, and the National Parent Teacher Association) is also documented. A comment on the Supreme Court's decision is included.

51. WELSH, R. S. Delinquency, Corporal Punishment, and the Schools. Crime and Delinquency, v. 24, n. 3:336-354. July 1978. (NCJ 49005)

Systems emphasizing aversive and authoritarian discipline techniques are examined to explore their effect in stimulating delinquent behavior. Recognizing a growing trend in the United States to blame youth crime on parental overpermissiveness, data are used to show that all types of crime, including school crime, develop within families and school systems emphasizing aversive and authoritarian discipline techniques. Also, it is indicated that racism and personal injustice are more common in an authoritarian atmosphere. Of all types of aversive behavioral control, corporal punishment is believed most likely to induce aggression. A theory relating delinquent aggression to the severity of parental discipline is sketched, and a national effort to discourage the use of corporal punishment as a socially acceptable child-rearing technique is suggested. Since corporal punishment is said to produce both fear and anger, it is believed that its continued use in the schools can only be counterproductive to the learning process. It is noted that many who strongly advocate corporal punishment in the classroom have expressed a willingness to forego its use if more teachers and staff could be trained in alternative methods of effectively handling the troublesome pupil. It is urged that a joint effort be made to train teachers thoroughly in nonaversive but effective techniques of pupil control. In addition, the support of well-trained guidance personnel who are willing to enter homes and work with behavioral problems at their source is recommended.

PART III – SCHOOL PROGRAMS
MULTIPLE APPROACHES

52. ADAMS, G. R. Classroom Aggression: Determinants, Controlling Mechanisms, and Guidelines for the Implementation of a Behavior Modification Program. 1973. 14 p. (NCJ 51411)

Hypotheses concerning the causes of aggressive behavior are reviewed, methods of controlling aggression are outlined, and a classroom behavior modification program based on experimentation is described. Frustration, the effects of observing aggressive behavior by others, reinforcement, and the social environment are among possible determinants of aggression. Control mechanisms include stimulus control, punishment, induction (a parental technique focusing on the consequences of the child's act), social reinforcement, successive approximations (behavior shaping), and catharsis (e.g., modifying the actual expression of aggression by viewing aggressive programs on television). When possible, teachers should consult and work with school psychologists in the initial stages of implementing a behavior modification program. The scientific method of experimentalism--using observations to define the problem, developing hypotheses about the causes of the problem and about possible solutions, experimenting with possible solutions--is a useful approach to achieving modification of aggressive behavior in the classroom. An illustration of how the experimental approach may be applied in the classroom is presented. A list of references is included.

53. BEATTY, F. New Model Me. American Education, v. 13, n. 1:23-26. January-February 1977. (NCJ 45937)

A new high school curriculum based on positive, preventive approaches to discipline problems, violent crime, and vandalism in American schools is examined. The New Model Me curriculum provides high school students in 29 States with a framework for classroom discussions about why people behave as they do, how to handle feelings of frustration and aggression, and how to make responsible decisions in everyday life. The curriculum's development and use in the classroom is examined. The curriculum can stand alone as a semester course, or parts of it can be integrated into existing courses in health, social studies, language arts, or psychology. It also can become the basis for group counseling sessions because of its emphasis on relating to others. The New Model Me program consists of an introductory unit on human behavior and five related units on social controls, the real self, values clarification, human responses to situations, and change in human behavior and relationships. Activities within each of these six units are designed to show students that a problem can be solved in more than one way. Students learn that every action has its own set of short- and long-term consequences which must be considered before decisions are made. The curriculum grew out of a search for courses in health and family living that might help stem student protests, vandalism, and alcohol, drug, and tobacco abuse. Curriculum developers created eight goals for

New Model Me students: to understand the human motivations underlying behavior; realize how resources and physical and social environments influence a person's behavior; study the nature and sources of frustrations and seek constructive methods for resolving them; discern that there are many ways to respond to a given situation; determine how constructive their own behavior is; make decisions based on what effects various courses of action will have on themselves and others; understand that aggressive behavior can be constructive or destructive; and use what has been learned about behavior and problem-solving in their everyday lives. By helping students achieve these goals, New Model Me is directing them away from aggressive acts that can destroy property and lives.

54. BLAUVELT, P. D. and S. D. VESTERMARK. School Security: How To Develop an Effective Program for Safe Learning in Elementary and Secondary Schools. College Park, Maryland, Institute for Reduction of Crime, Inc., 1977. 119 p. (NCJ 53430)

This workbook for school administrators assists them in understanding their role as crisis managers and in developing security systems to prevent and/or control crime. Schools should develop accurate information-gathering systems, require prompt and accurate reporting of criminal incidents, and design standard incident report forms. Guidelines for these activities and a sample form are provided, and critical indicators of school security problems are listed along with explanations of their importance. A chart of disruptive acts details steps to take in response to incidents as well as followup activities and reporting procedures. A model action plan is outlined containing the role each school person (administrator, teacher, staff member, and student) should take in responding to serious school security events. Development of an action coordinating committee is considered. A school security program should include measures for creating an understanding of the nature and extent of school crime and violence, a crime prevention program, and security policies for desegregation. Another section of the manual proposes five policy options for security programs and discusses their advantages and disadvantages. Various techniques for preventing and controlling crime are described, such as marking all valuable equipment, using special procedures for handling money, and initiating security precautions during periods in which schools are vulnerable to certain types of criminal behavior. Steps to follow if a crime does occur are provided. The final sections describe student involvement in school security, a student security advisory council plan, a school security program operating in some Maryland schools, and school vandalism issues.

55. CARLTON, R. P. Social Environment of the School: Implications for Delinquency Prevention. Crime Prevention Review, v. 4, n. 4:14-20. July 1977. (NCJ 42941)

The importance of the school experience as a significant determinant of delinquent behavior is emphasized and a way of changing the school's social environment to prevent such behavior is outlined. Examples of programs designed to enhance and improve the learning and social climate of the classroom and the school are described. These include Social Headstart, peer counseling, and Dr. Thomas Gordon's Effectiveness Training. A group therapy approach, Positive Peer Culture, uses the influence of group norms and peer pressure on behavior in an attempt to alter negative behavior patterns. Partnership in Research, a self-study project, allows behavioral feedback channels in school by involving subjects as partners and participant researchers. The author stresses that a positive school environment can be decisive in preventing delinquent behavior.

56. CSIKSZENTMIHALYI, M. and R. LARSON. Intrinsic Rewards in School Crime. Crime and Delinquency, v. 24, n. 3:322-335. July 1978. (NCJ 49004)

Using concepts derived from motivational research, delinquent behavior in a school context is examined, and recommendations for an improved motivational system in schools are presented. It is noted that the systematic structure of a school can aim at eliciting the desired behavior from students through a variety of motivational schemes. The two approaches most prevalent are formal mechanisms of rules with accompanying sanctions and grades, and the conditioning of students to believe that future rewards (wealth, success, a status job) are necessarily dependent on praiseworthy school performance. A third motivational approach (rarely used) is to provide, within the planned teaching program, a realistic opportunity for students to enjoy and be attracted to the learning experience itself. The first two motivational approaches are called "extrinsic" mechanisms and the third approach is called "intrinsic" motivation. Extrinsic motivational mechanisms are considered most likely to spawn reactionary delinquency because the mind, emotions, and physical energies of the students are not absorbed in a fulfilling way; thus, alternative behaviors emerge to fill the need for challenge and excitement. The disruption of classes, vandalism, and violence in schools are believed to be, in part, attempts by adolescents to experience excitement in otherwise lifeless schools. Concentrated efforts at reaching students at levels of intrinsic motivation are urged as the most effective means of drawing them into positive intellectual emotional developmental processes. By definition, activities eliciting intrinsic motivation are so totally absorbing that, in an immediate sense, nothing else is needed for fulfillment. While specific ways for doing this in a school context are not developed, the characteristics of an intrinsically motivated experience are given with the following criteria:

a person is challenged at a level matched to his level of skills; there is perception of a level matched to his level of skills; there is perception of a constrained set of possible actions to be chosen by the actor; there are clearly defined and challenging goals; and there are opportunities for unambiguous feedback. The structure and dynamics of a formal game voluntarily chosen are considered clear examples of an intrinsic motivational system.

57. DADE COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS. Impact and Operational Features of Programs Designed To Modify Disruptive Behavior in the Dade County (Florida) Public Schools. Miami, 1976. 76 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 51405)

Alternative school and special instruction programs used in Miami, Florida, to modify the behavior of disruptive students in the public schools are described and evaluated. The alternative school program operates through four facilities at the junior high school and senior high school levels. The program features individualized instruction in the basic skills, extensive opportunity for counseling and vocational preparation, small class size, and use of behavior modification approaches for developing appropriate academic and social behavior. Students sent to the alternative schools have been judged to be socially maladjusted. The School Centers for Special Instruction (SCSI), located in each secondary school, provide problem students with a brief "time out" from their regular class settings, offering an environment in which the student can continue the regular academic program under close supervision. Students are assigned to the centers by teachers or administrators for periods of 3 to 5 days. Academic and social guidance counseling is made available to the students. Interviews with alternative school staff indicated general adherence to most operational guidelines, although behavior modification tactics were not being applied in at least one of the schools. There were some problems in gaining cooperation from parents. Students felt that the programs were helpful. For students still in the alternative program, positive changes in motivation, performance, and behavior were noted. However, about 20 percent of the students were evaluated as never being able to return to the regular school program, and 11 percent were thought never to be able to graduate. Of the students who had returned, 20 percent were evaluated as requiring reassignment to the alternative school. However, for the behaviors used to define the disruptive syndrome, the majority of former alternative school students were evaluated as "better or no worse" than other students in their classes. Observation of SCSI classes indicated that student behavior was being controlled and appropriately directed in most cases. Although no formal evaluation of the impact of SCSI's on student behavior was performed, teachers seemed to feel that SCSI's were effective. Analysis of data on students suspended for involvement in relatively serious misbehavior revealed a pattern of low academic achievement, truancy, verbal assaults on staff, and physical assaults on fellow students. Significant percentages of these students had been exposed to SCSI's and alternative schools. Among recommendations are the develop-

ment of early identification procedures, and inservice training to help regular classroom teachers cope with disruptive behavior. Supporting data are included.

58. DECECCO, J. P. and A. K. RICHARDS. Growing Pains: Uses of School Conflict. New York, Federal Legal Publications, Inc., 1974. 269 p. (NCJ 37685)

Based on a research project on civic education, this text provides information for teachers, students, and school administrators on how to utilize school conflict in order to generate new options for resolving conflict. The text opens with an introductory overview of the dilemmas of high school as seen by students, teachers, school officials, and parents. The specific dilemmas of teachers are then examined. A distinction is made between "survival" teaching and "gourmet" teaching. In gourmet teaching, the teacher can enlist the help of students in developing new ways of teaching and learning. The opinions of students with respect to school conflicts are described as well. These school conflicts are applied to the rights students consider most relevant: participation in decisionmaking, dissent, equality, and due process. A discussion of anger, verbal threats, violence, and vandalism surrounding school conflict is included, in which the author shows that: (1) all conflicting parties need to give direct verbal expression to anger as a way to open negotiations; (2) the alternatives to verbal expression of anger are violence, vandalism, and coercion. Finally, the text offers specific suggestions on ways to resolve school conflicts by negotiation and channeling of conflict energies into reform and conflict resolution. The appendixes include a conflict interview form and a checklist that can be used for transforming partisan statements into forms more suitable for the production of a mutually acceptable statement. A summary of the the original research project is also appended.

59. DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA OFFICE OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE PLANS AND ANALYSIS. Evaluation of the Roving Leaders Secondary School Project. By ICF, Inc. Washington, 1973. 21 p. (NCJ 15724)

The effectiveness of using indigenous aides to assist and counsel troubled youths is evaluated. The program target areas included Kenilworth-Benning, Stoddert, Shaw, Mount Pleasant-14th Street, Southwest, and Brentwood. Program objectives involved assisting targeted secondary schools with loitering and unauthorized entry, crowd control at athletic events, extortion, truancy and dropouts, and violence and threats against students and faculty. The evaluation of this program was based on the analysis of the program's client files, administrative records, and interviews with school officials and program administrators. Roving leaders contribute significantly to the prevention of truancy, school

dropouts, loitering, and community juvenile delinquency incidents in general. They also recommended that the program be continued, though not under LEAA subgrant funding.

60. DUKE, D. L. Can the Curriculum Contribute to Calmer Classrooms? 1977. 32 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 52432)

Focusing on school discipline problems, this essay examines educator's use of curriculum in dealing with student behavior problems and the effectiveness of these efforts. Curriculum content that is not relevant to the background, interests, or aspirations of students or is inappropriate for students' ability levels can cause discipline problems. If curriculum content can contribute to the onset of discipline problems, then conceivably it can help to eliminate such problems. A variety of curriculum approaches to student behavior problems are found in the literature. Five "direct" and five "indirect" approaches include department training, moral education, impromptu problems, rules, special programs, values clarification, personal and group psychology, affective education, special skills, and student rights. These approaches are examined with regard to their effectiveness using the following criteria: (1) impact on actual behavior--does the curriculum result in behavior change; (2) practicality--is it possible to implement the approach in the classroom; and (3) controversiality--does the curriculum reflect local norms and values. Although there are insufficient investigative data on the effectiveness of these approaches, there is evidence that some of them are instrumental in changing student behavior patterns. More research in this area is suggested. References are provided.

61. _____. Systematic Management Plan for School Discipline. National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, v. 61, n. 405:1-10 January 1977. (NCJ 51416)

A comprehensive, schoolwide discipline program is outlined, emphasizing the use of rewards for obedient students, conflict resolution mechanisms, team approaches, and inservice education. The Systematic Management Plan for School Discipline (SMPSD), dealing with specific school-based factors related to student misbehavior, confronts the following six problems: inconsistent enforcement of school rules by teachers and administrators; inconsistently applied consequences for breaking school rules; failure of school personnel to make students aware of school rules; failure of school personnel to deal with misbehavior in a prompt and individualized manner; failure of school personnel to confront minor problems before they become major ones; and failure of school personnel to involve parents in the resolution of discipline problems. The basic components of the SMPSD include provisions for the collection of accurate data on discipline, the development of an aware-

ness of the school as a rule-governed institution, the rewarding of students who obey school rules, the development of conflict resolution mechanisms, the encouragement of a team approach to managing misbehavior, and inservice education dealing with school discipline. Under the plan, more accurate information on the sources and targets of student misbehavior is collected and, in turn, used to underscore problem areas to be dealt with if the administration is going to maintain an image of the school as a rule-governed institution. Rewards to students who obey school rules would reinforce this image and help uphold a workable decorum. The conflict resolution mechanisms are intended to buttress these prevention efforts and deal with their failures. The application of a team approach is a logical extension of such efforts, as it would involve teachers, parents, the community, and ultimately students in a management context previously dominated by school administrators alone. Inservice education of school staff members would provide for the continuous influx of new ideas concerning school discipline and the occasional education of school personnel in specific skills for handling misbehavior. References are provided.

62. GOLD, M. Scholastic Experiences, Self-Esteem, and Delinquent Behavior: A Theory for Alternative Schools. Crime and Delinquency, v. 24, n.3: 290-308. July 1978. (NCJ 49003)

Theory and data are presented which indicate that certain alternative educational programs are a promising means of preventing and treating delinquent behavior. Results from various studies are used to develop the theory that delinquent behavior is a manifestation of a psychological defense against threats to self-esteem. Believing that the traditional standards of success and failure set by the school system are instrumental in conditioning perceptions of self-worth among students based on academic achievement, it is proposed that children and youths failing in this role will instinctively probe for nonacademic behaviors to draw recognition from their peers and to defend against a deteriorating sense of self-esteem in their student role. Such recognition is often gained by acting out hostility aimed at school and authority figures that other students feel, but do not express. Delinquent behavior may become socialized within a subculture of youths who cannot succeed in the adult-structured school system. It is considered the responsibility of the school to desensitize the pain and defense mechanisms that arise because of academic failure measured by traditional norms. It is believed this can be done by structuring alternative learning processes for those who cannot achieve reasonable success in the traditional academic patterns. Such programs would be appropriate to the student's present level of skills, appeal to the student's interest, allow progress at an individual pace, permit evaluation of progress in relation to the student's own previous level of achievement, and permit the development of a warm, accepting relationship with the student's teacher. The overall intent of this alternative educational climate would be to preclude the development of feelings of low self-esteem by

dismantling the system that stimulates such feelings and surrounding the student with feedback that affirms the importance of what is done at whatever level of development. Notes are provided.

63. GOLDSTEIN, W. Dealing With the Irreverent Student. National Association of Secondary Principals Bulletin, v. 61, n. 405:79-83. January 1977. (NCJ 51414)

A profile is provided of disruptive students, along with suggestions on how school administrators can deal with parents, with supportive staff members, and with the students themselves. Typically, these students are bright, articulate, well-read, and to some extent social loners. They usually come from middle to uppermiddle class homes in which parents appear to be liberal to ultraliberal with intellectual and political commitments to individualism and creativity. Such students usually project an image of the 1960's "hippie" culture; they are generally bored with the academic offerings of the school, alienated from the school, and contemptuous of its values and of all authority. Their demands include an open campus, student lounges and smoking area, an extraordinary variety of so-called mini-courses, and evaluation of teaching faculty by students. It is clear that many of the parents have lost control of their children, while others encourage the show of independence. A three-prong strategy involving the parents, school personnel, and the students themselves is suggested. Administrators should strive to understand the motivations underlying the parents' attitudes. They should discuss with parents classical manifestations of symptoms of radical behavior before an incendiary incident occurs, emphasizing the difference between freedom and license. Although discussions with parents should be frank and honest, an administrator should never be intimidated by political pressure or letters to the school board. Emphasis on class attendance, constant staff communication with the parents of irreverent students, and guiding the students toward reading that provides a positive perspective on society are recommended strategies. Finally, administrators should never ignore these students; instead they should engage them in discussion of current issues, punish transgressions of school rules fairly, and make it clear that no destructive behavior, threats of retaliation, or insults on the part of the student will be tolerated. No references are cited.

64. HARD RULES FOR ENFORCING DISCIPLINE IN YOUR SCHOOLS. American School Board Journal, v. 165, n. 3:29-32, 63. March 1978. (NCJ 52426)

Citing relevant court decisions, this paper delineates reasonable school policies on dress codes, possession of drugs and weapons, conduct, and corporal punishment that do not violate students' rights. School administrators must consider students' rights as outlined by the first amend-

ment, search and seizure laws, due process laws, and consent to search laws before establishing school policy. Dress codes, if used at all, should specify student appearance and grooming only in areas where safety and health are concerned, although nudity could be prohibited since it violates laws on decent exposure. School administrators should maintain access to student lockers by requiring lockerholders to sign a written notice stating that lockers will be searched regularly and to submit lock combinations to the administrators. If the administration suspects a student of having drugs or weapons in a locker, the student should be informed of the suspicion, accompanied to the locker, and asked to open it. Officials must be able to prove that they are not acting as agents of the police in searching students' lockers. Administrators who discover possession of drugs and weapons which would constitute a criminal offense should report the matter to police immediately and follow through with school disciplinary policy. Corporal punishment is endorsed, but teachers and administrators should be careful to inform students of the charges against them and sanctions before taking action and should allow students to admit or deny accusations. Suspension and expulsion should always be accompanied by a prompt and fair hearing. School policy regarding police body searches, property searches, and student interrogation on school grounds is considered.

65. HARRIS, K. B. Reducing School Violence and Drug Abuse. Security World, v. 11, n. 2:18, 44-45. January 1974. (NCJ 35176)

The security chief of a Los Angeles, California, junior high school describes how a reduction of drug abuse and violence was achieved. The first phase was to gain the trust and respect of the student body by developing a reputation for strictness, fairness, and honesty. Next, a sphere of control was established by enforcing loitering codes to keep outsiders away from the school and tolerating no interpersonal disputes which were acted out on school grounds. Next, a feeling of group worth was fostered, through stressing group identification with the school and characterizing education as the means of escape for the largely underprivileged student body. Finally, once the epidemic proportions of drug abuse were eliminated, student drug abusers were treated on an individual basis, with emphasis on individual causes and treatment. Student attitudes are said to have improved, and drug abuse is said to have dropped by about 80 percent. Recommendations are made for implementing such a program in other schools.

66. HOWELL, B. and B. GRAHLMAN. School Climate: Evaluation and Implementation; An Anthology. Tulsa, Oklahoma, University of Tulsa, 1977. 110 p. (NCJ 53431)

This anthology of papers by professionals in education considers the definition of school climate, school climate assessment and evaluation,

and measures for influencing school climate. The first paper discusses the essence of a positive school climate and describes it as the result of promoting satisfactory and productive experiences and sensitivity toward basic human needs. The principal identifies climate determinants and assumes responsibility for their fulfillment. Teacher and administrator self-assessment and school assessment are strategies for beginning a program to improve school climate, and an assessment activity outline is provided. A study of 20 junior high schools that assessed students' perceptions of school climate as opposed to teachers' perceptions according to such indicators as humane teachers, opportunity for input, and innovativeness is presented, as well as a study done in an Omaha, Nebraska, school district using the Kettering Foundation School Climate Profile. The second portion of the anthology, concerning implementation of school climate improvement policies, begins with a discussion of staff development and school climate which maintains that the two factors are mutually dependent and recommends that staff development planners be highly sensitive to climate factors. Several papers offer advice on improving school climates by establishing feelings of trust in classrooms, altering physical environments, alternating teaching methods, sharing school governance with parents, and organizing climate improvement committees, as well as implementing committee activities. School discipline problems and rates of crime and violence are also addressed. Selections contain supporting data and references.

67. KELLER, E. J. School Security: The Role of the Police. Law and Order, v. 20, n. 12:50-52. December 1972. (NCJ 07605)

The police role in preventing crime in public schools is discussed. The local chief of police must develop a liaison between his department and school personnel responsible for security. A comprehensive security program should include the following: emergencies; drug usage and prevention; robbery and burglary prevention; and communication between police, school security and administration personnel, and the school community (students, teachers, parents). The importance of the police officer's role when dealing with young people should be stressed in the police training program of every police department.

68. KNUDTEN, R. D. Delinquency Programs in Schools: A Survey. Criminal Justice and Behavior, v. 2, n. 4:346-357. December 1975. (NCJ 31198)

This paper reports on a survey of existing and proposed delinquency prevention programs in the public schools conducted in 1972-1973 by the Marquette University Center for Criminal Justice and Social Policy. Questions examined included the following: What delinquency prevention programs exist in the sample of school systems surveyed? What programs or efforts do school administrators or their representatives believe would be effective in dealing with delinquency in the schools? And what are the implications for public policy? Answers to these questions were

offered by 219 of the 440 superintendents, State school boards, and/or other school system representatives queried. Public policy recommendations are suggested.

69. MARYLAND STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. Maryland Task Force on Educational Programs for Disruptive Youth. Baltimore, 1976. 42 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 52430)

This report by Maryland's Task Force on Educational Programs for Disruptive Youth discusses the history and focus of the task force, assesses the scope and causes of disruption, and suggests possible solutions. The task force was founded to identify educational programs for youth who cannot function in regular school programs. The first major step of the task force involved a survey of State secondary schools to assess the nature and extent of disruptive behavior by collecting and summarizing four types of data: the number of disruptive students; the number of office referrals for disruptive behavior; the number of different students referred; and the types of behavior causing the disruptions. The survey instrument (not included) was mailed to 405 principals; 293 were completed and returned. The responses indicate that the disruption of the learning process in the State's 24 educational systems by students displaying both negative aggressive and withdrawal behaviors is widespread. While the incidence of violent and criminal acts is alarming, it is the prevalence of less serious types of behavior (e.g., insubordination, tardiness, truancy) that disrupts classrooms and consumes the time and energy of teachers and administrators. The data suggest that such behaviors are part of a behavior continuum and that sociological factors (e.g., population mobility, disintegration of the family) are most responsible for the increase in negative conduct among youth. In light of the multiple and interactive nature of such causes, attempts to solve the problem of disruption should focus on changing the school as an institution, rather than on attempting to treat the individual factors responsible for the problem. The following types of programs are prescribed to deal with disruptive youth: (1) a continuum of alternatives and services for students with problems; (2) human relations and interpersonal training for all segments of the school population, including staff and students; (3) expanded counseling services; (4) community diagnostic-treatment centers; and (5) specialized training for teacher candidates. Recommendations for the design, funding, and implementation of such programs are included. Tabular data are provided.

70. McGOWAN, W. N. Crime Control in Public Schools--Space Age Solutions. National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, v. 57, n. 372:43-48. April 1973. (NCJ 42735)

The article points out that the likelihood of a major crisis springing from a conflict is in proportion to the response time in dealing

with it. A system called "pass" is being used in Kennedy High School in Sacramento, California, to reduce the time for help to arrive after a school staff member encounters trouble. The school staff carries a small transmitter, and receivers are placed every 30 feet throughout the school. A signal from any transmitter activates a location board in the office. Help is then sent to the scene. Another system, the automated attendance accounting system, is used in the school for quick attendance checks. This system aids in establishing a student's location. Both systems used at Kennedy are experimental and costly, running upwards of $20,000.

71. MENDEZ, R. School Suspension: Discipline Without Failure. National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, v. 61, n. 405: 11-13. January 1977. (NCJ 52534)

The rationale behind inschool suspension and staffing requirements for a school suspension program are discussed. School suspension programs are flexible and can be adapted to individual schools and communities. A disciplinary action should attempt to modify the individual's future behavior and protect others in the school environment. Inschool suspension satisfies these requirements and also protects the community from delinquent behavior that might occur during the unsupervised time of regular suspension. Students can be assigned to a suspension school for many offenses including truancy, theft, and class disturbance. The length of the penalty can vary according to the discretion of school officials. Many districts can finance a suspension school program with State or Federal funds and the location of the program can vary from a single room on a campus to a separate campus. The staffing of the suspension school program varies with the district's philosophy and economic condition. Certified teachers, resource teachers, members of the counseling staff, or other professional personnel could be used in suspension schools to motivate and counsel students. The suspension program, which isolates students and allows them to evaluate their actions, should help the students to realize their potential. Parents must be aware of the school's involvement in modifying their children's behavior, and they must be reassured of their role in influencing that behavior.

72. NATIONAL SCHOOL BOARD ASSOCIATION. Discipline in Our Big City Schools: A Report. Washington, 1977. 52 p. (NCJ 51408)

The results of an informal survey of student discipline problems and solutions in urban schools are reported, and recommendations for curbing discipline problems are offered. Members of the Ad Hoc Committee on Discipline of the National School Boards Association's Council of Big City Boards of Education studied the discipline problems in

their own geographic areas. School board members in over 100 districts were asked what kinds of discipline problems they had and what approaches they had found beneficial in dealing with the problems. The committee's report discusses the nature and scope of discipline, parents and the discipline problem, and factors that appear to contribute to discipline problems. Data on causes for suspension in elementary, junior high, and high schools are presented and analyzed. Programs used as alternatives to suspension are described, including on- and off-campus alternative programs providing special facilities for disruptive students, adjustment transfers to other schools, referrals to vocational counselors or vocational schools, student "buddy" systems, "adoption" by teachers, withdrawal of privileges, home visits by school staff, parent volunteer programs, and community-based discipline task forces. Examples of specific programs are cited, as are the views of some of the school board members surveyed. The committee's findings indicate that discipline problems are most serious in the junior and early senior high school years, that discipline problems are not necessarily more common among minority students, and that nonattendance (tardiness, truancy, cutting class) is the most frequent cause of disciplinary action. Other frequently cited problems are violations of school regulations, assaults, verbal abuse of teachers, theft, vandalism, and class disruptions. The committee recommends that school districts with discipline problems establish a task force; involve students, parents, teachers, and administrators in the development of discipline policies and procedures; distribute all written policies and procedures to students, parents, teachers, administrators, and other school employees; offer inservice training to help teachers deal with disruptive students consistently and fairly; encourage employees to exercise their legal rights (including the right to search students when conditions so warrant) to prevent violence; support employees when their exercise of authority is challenged; and establish alternative programs (e.g., inschool suspension from regular classes, alternative classes, out-of-school alternatives) for students with chronic discipline problems. Sample policies on student discipline are included.

73. NORTH CAROLINA DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION. Discipline in Schools: A Source Book. By V. Mulholland and B. Conner. Raleigh, North Carolina, 153 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 51415)

Suggestions for preventing and dealing with discipline problems are presented in a sourcebook for teachers, administrators, and other school personnel. Statistics on vandalism and other forms of school crime, highlights from a study of discipline problems in North Carolina high schools, and a sampling of the views of North Carolina students, teachers, administrators, and parents serve to define the problem of school discipline. Suggestions for preventing discipline problems center on helping students to feel worthwhile, making the school experience more interesting, developing more effective rules,

involving parents, and establishing effective security. Ways of developing close relationships between school personnel and students, helping students develop close relationships with their peers and with their families, helping students to be healthy and feel attractive, involving students in decisionmaking, and helping students to experience success in school are described. Specific techniques for dealing with discipline problems are discussed, e.g., behavior contracting, behavior modification, changing the environment, corporal punishment, conflict management, problemsolving, referral, suspension and expulsion, and transactional analysis. Examples of particularly promising disciplinary practices and programs are cited. Barriers to constructive change--unwritten rules, fear of change, lack of money, time, authority, and knowledge--are discussed, as are the legal aspects of school discipline. An annotated bibliography of books, pamphlets, journal articles, and audiovisual materials is provided. Details of the North Carolina study are appended.

74. PETTIBONE, J. M. Working With Inschool Delinquents: The Volunteer SPO (School Probation Officer) Program. Santa Cruz, California, Davis Publishing Company, 1975. 171 p. (NCJ 31782)

In this program, school personnel volunteer to act as juvenile court probation officers while carrying out their school duties, doing probation casework and supervision with delinquents inside the school setting. This collection of seven articles describes, proposes, and explains how to develop such a program. The appendix contains two additional articles on SPO programs which have already been implemented and a sample SPO supervision guide and casework report form. A 9-page bibliography of books, articles, and other sources is included.

75. PRITCHARD, R. and V. WEDRA, Eds. Resource Manual for Reducing Conflict and Violence in California Schools. Sacramento, California School Boards Association, 1975. 64 p. (NCJ 27652)

After providing an overview of the nature and causes of school violence, the manual proposes a new community-oriented management system for schools and outlines a plan for school, agency, and community cooperation. Other programs and reforms which may aid in reducing school violence are school management in a team structure and parent education. It is noted that these two innovations would increase staff development and coordination, and involve parents in helping students control their behavior. Several programs which have been successful in helping the troubled student or preventing the occurrence of student behavior problems are described. Examples of successful security measures for vandalism and violence control

and interagency programs to improve or establish services to youth are provided. The text of a bill which established the California School Attendance Review Board is also included.

76. ROBERTS, E. L., JR. Crime Prevention and Drug Education: The Legislative Mandate and Its Implementation by the Texas Education Agency and 19 Texas School Districts. Doctoral Dissertation, North Texas State University, Denton, Texas, 1974. 290 p. (NCJ 51161)

The extent to which the Texas Education Agency and selected school districts have implemented legislative provisions intended to curb crime and drug use among Texas youth is determined. The purpose of the study was twofold: (1) to describe the sequential development of the Crime Prevention and Drug Education Program mandated by House bill 467; and (2) to determine the status of the Crime Prevention and Drug Education Program in selected school districts. In order to insure statewide geographic distribution, 1 district from each of 19 education service center regions was selected and 2 survey instruments were administered to the school personnel. The first instrument was designed to assimilate information on organization practices and procedures used in implementing the programs, while the second was developed to assess the perceptions of principals and teachers toward drug misuse and abuse. From the investigation of the program's development, it was found that one consultant is employed by each of the regional education service centers, that no statewide curriculum guide has been developed or adopted by the Education Agency, and that each school district is encouraged to develop its own curriculum. It was also found that there is little difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of drug use among students; adequate funds have not been made available to implement the provisions of the bill; and there is a need for school boards to develop official school board policies to provide for meeting the bill's mandate. Several studies are recommended: (1) examine drug education programs in other States; (2) develop evaluation procedures for drug education programs; (3) determine ways in which teacher-training institutions can develop preservice and inservice training programs for teachers; and (4) perform a comprehensive statewide survey to determine drug use extent among public school students. Tabular data, the survey instruments, and a bibliography are provided.

77. SCHUCHTER, A. Schools and Delinquency Prevention Strategies. Criminal Justice and Behavior, v. 2, n. 4:339-345. December 1975. (NCJ 31197)

The author reviews the failure of schools in dealing with problems of youths vulnerable to criminal justice system involvement, and questions the efficacy of stressing educational strategies for remedying delinquency. The author notes that the school's approaches to delinquency prevention are impeded by inadequate allocation of

financial resources and inadequate capacity to achieve significant new goals for education. He states that the incremental gain from even a radical redistribution of investment in schools is likely to be small in relation to the root problems of either poverty or excessive involvement of low-income youth in the justice system. Other factors intervene between education and income or education and delinquency that mitigate the effectiveness of an educational strategy. It is suggested that youths should be presented with alternative means of entry--other than schools--into the occupational world. The author also recommends a limited decriminalization of school nonattendance to avoid penalizing those youths who have no interest in school.

78. SEATTLE PUBLIC SCHOOLS. Contingency Plan for Peaceful Desegregation. By H. J. Reed. Seattle, Washington, 1978. 54 p. (NCJ 53429)

This Seattle (Washington) School District contingency plan for peaceful desegregation details procedures for school security, crisis prevention and intervention, and human relations training for staff. Besides outlining policy and procedural steps regarding school communications, transportation, and maintenance, etc., this plan considers school security and police-school relations. The district utilizes security monitor personnel and security officers who routinely file reports on incidents, student misbehavior and truancy, and minor theft. A statement is provided on areas of cooperation between administrators and police, police access to student records, interrogation and pursuit of student suspects on school grounds, and police decisionmaking powers on school grounds. Steps are described for establishing long- and short-term prevention measures against crisis incidents and crime, such as remaining aware of all student complaints and meeting regularly with dissident students. Procedures are also detailed for responding to a crisis at hand. Troublemaking students should be isolated and listened to, but in the event of fights, all parties should be suspended and their parents notified that they must attend a conference as soon as possible. Crisis prevention and intervention teams conduct workshops in crosscultural relations, communications, and staff teambuilding. A human service relations inservice training unit provides regular sessions with all staff.

79. SHAVER, R. V. Role of Parent-Teacher Organizations--Workshops: Conference on Violence and Vandalism in the Schools, April 29-May 1, 1976. Manhattan, Kansas State University, 1976. (NCJ 35637)

In this tape of a conference address, the speaker outlines the efforts of the National Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) on violence and vandalism prevention and describes specific local PTA projects to alleviate these

problems. It is noted that the National PTA had adopted violence and vandalism as two of its priority concerns. The major points and issues of an editorial published by the president of the National PTA are then presented in an effort to indicate specific areas of concern for the PTA. These areas include the problem of school suspensions and expulsions, absenteeism, drug and alcohol abuse in relation to violence and vandalism, the effect of the community environment on violence and vandalism, the effect of television violence, and the problem of parent apathy and noninvolvement. The speaker describes the efforts of the National PTA in these areas of concern. It is noted that the National PTA is funding a pilot project on the problem of absenteeism, has promoted an alcoholism education program, has issued a resolution demanding that networks reduce the amount of violence shown on television, and has supported handgun control. Several examples of specific violence and vandalism projects undertaken by local PTA's are then provided. Among the types of projects discussed are programs to promote student pride in their school (Operation Pride), parent patrols of school grounds, programs to encourage community reporting of acts of vandalism, community education programs on vandalism, and courses for students on the costs and effects of vandalism. Projects which involved the opening of school buildings at night for student activities, the use of student security patrols, or the establishment of residences for custodial staff on the school grounds itself are also discussed. For the entire series of tapes from the Violence and Vandalism Conference, see NCJ 35621, 35623-35627, 35629-35635, 35637, 35638, and 35640-35645.

80. TEXAS EDUCATION AGENCY. Administrator's Handbook for Crime Prevention and Drug Education. Austin, 1975. 45 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 31511)

This handbook is designed to assist Texas public schools in formulating a philosophy about, and developing appropriate programs and techniques for, State-required drug education and crime prevention programs. The handbook covers the areas of district program organization, program planning, time sequencing and controlling, needs assessment, and development of objectives. An outline is suggested for the development of a clear and comprehensive crime prevention and drug education policy. Relevant sections of the Texas Education Code are presented in appendixes.

81. THAW, R. F. III and D. FELDMAN. Preventable Property Damage: Vandalism and Beyond. Crime Prevention Review, v. 5, n. 3:8-15. April 1978. (NCJ 51427)

Factors in the schools' failure to deal effectively with preventable property damage are identified, and an alternative approach, based on analysis of the property-damaging acts themselves, is suggested. There is evidence that the greatest dollar losses in preventable

property damage in the schools are unreported and unrecognized by school systems. The failure of schools to deal realistically with the problem of preventable property damage may be traced to the traditional focus on vandalism. This focus, with its implications of intent and maliciousness, fails to consider the many property-damaging acts that stem from carelessness and thoughtlessness. An alternative to the vandalism focus is a model that shows the generic dimensions of property damage and their interrelationships. Three dimensions are identified in this model: hostility-directed acts, acts of thoughtlessness, and acts of carelessness. Hostility-directed acts are performed as expressions of hostility and carry an intent that may be revenge seeking, change seeking, or gain seeking. This type of act, a minor contributor to preventable dollar loss, has been the target of most attempts at prevention. Acts of thoughtlessness are those carried out with an intent to play. Awareness of destructive consequences fails to override the desire to play. Acts of carelessness need not involve intent, are typified by littering, and often take place in areas where students "hang out." By focusing on preventability rather than on the intent or abnormality of an act, the model makes it possible to distribute responsibility for property damage among the general student population. Remediation of the problem may be found in the sharing of responsibility and in the appropriate selection and direction of consequences. Main strengths of the model are that it enables both measurement of preventable losses beyond those resulting from vandalism and identification of property damage patterns and appropriate solutions. The model also includes the possibility that, as minor acts against property continue devoid of consequences to the perpetrator and become routinized, risk-taking behavior requires involvement in more serious acts.

82. THOMAS, D. Curriculum Approach: Solving Discipline Problems Through Law-Related Education. National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, v. 60, n. 397:15-19. February 1976. (NCJ 51368)

High school principals are urged to introduce courses designed to teach students how to live effectively and successfully within the legal system. The Supreme Court ruling requiring due process procedures prior to suspending students from school, together with other rulings asserting and supporting students' rights, restrict the ability of principals to enforce discipline. At the same time, parents generally want the schools to be more strict and to exercise greater control over what students can and cannot do. One approach to this dilemma is the introduction of law instruction. Law-related education provides students with the skills they need to use democratic processes to improve society. The students study basic concepts of law, such as authority, justice, responsibility, due process, and property, and discuss the law with their parents and other adults. Students are taught that the law is an alternative to con-

fusion, frustration, or violence in responding to conflict. Classes are conducted by trained teachers assisted by attorneys. Law education differs from civics courses in that, instead of reading about good citizenship, students live the law, engaging in mock trials and role-playing exercises, discussing legal issues with attorneys and judges, and observing the community's legal machinery. Much of the curriculum is built around actual court cases. An important aspect of the program is intensive inservice education for teachers. Schools or parents interested in implementing law instruction courses can begin by contacting the local or state bar association. Law-related education has many potential benefits, including a better understanding of discipline and the rights of students, the development of responsible citizens, and greater social stability.

83. U.S. CONGRESS. Senate Subcommittee To Investigate Juvenile Delinquency. Challenge for the Third Century: Education in a Safe Environment, Final Report on the Nature and Prevention of School Violence and Vandalism. Report of the Senate Subcommittee To Investigate Juvenile Delinquency. Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977. 120 p. (NCJ 40084)
Stock No. 052-070-03920-5

This report presents suggestions to the educational community of various models and strategies which were examined by the subcommittee and were found to be particularly helpful in reducing and preventing school violence and vandalism. The report, dated February 1977, is the result of an intensive investigation conducted over the past several years. The subcommittee has held numerous hearings and has received testimony from over 500 witnesses on a variety of topics, some of which involved the extent and cause of drug abuse, runaway youth, and school dropouts. Also explored were the confinement of juveniles in detention facilities and the most promising programs for reducing the alarming rate of juvenile delinquency. The committee suggests that school boards and State education agencies develop a balanced and effective program to reduce and prevent violence and vandalism in schools. It is further recommended that Congress enact the Juvenile Delinquency in the Schools Act as part of the Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention Act.

84. U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE. Office of Education. Teacher Corps/Youth Advocacy Projects: Education for Troubled Youths. By R. J. Lauren. Washington, 1976. 27 p. (NCJ 46730)
Stock No. ED 129-738

This document provides an overview of the six existing teacher corps youth advocacy projects, which are designed to meet the needs of youths in trouble in school or with the law. The program involves

2-year programs for teacher training and utilization. The number and scope of these projects are outlined and illustrated for the period 1968-1976. The six operating projects are presented and analyzed in a comparative fashion that highlights critical areas of the programs including shared goals and objectives, governance and administration, staffing patterns, and educational and curricular emphasis. Changes are needed in all facets of education, particularly as it relates to troubled youth. Some critical elements of these changes are examined, including educational content/curriculum, learning and teaching techniques, interdisciplinary curriculums, collaborative decisionmaking, and local education agencies. The unique concept of the community in the youth advocacy projects is discussed as a support system and in its relationship with the criminal justice system. The final section of the report describes a number of issues related to education and troubled youth and cites some examples of effective solutions. The issues are curriculum, teacher training, alternative school structures, integration of human services, and interorganizational cooperation. Up until the time of writing, the most comprehensive effort to integrate human services for young people at the neighborhood level has been that of the youth service bureaus. Training school personnel in delinquency issues has been carried out in a model summer counseling program coordinated by the Indiana Department of Public Instruction. A delinquency program run by the Minnesota Youth Advocacy Corps has made considerable progress in addressing the problem of "linkage" or followthrough from correctional facility back to the community. Alternative school structures in Florida, Wisconsin, and Oregon are briefly sketched. References are included.

85. U.S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. Albuquerque/Bernalillo County Youth-Related Property Crime Reduction Program: Evaluation Design. By J. R. Butler. University of New Mexico Institute for Social Research and Development. Washington, 1973. (NCJ 10669)
Stock No. PB 224 280/AS

The configuration and operation of school-police teams which will identify high-crime-potential youngsters and implement a variety of remedial intervention programs are described. This research project is designed to test the hypothesis that combined school-police action aimed at early identification of the subset of juveniles with a high crime potential, followed by remedial intervention, will result in a reduction of property crimes. The organization and operation of the school-police teams is described in detail. An adaptive remedial intervention program is outlined for chronic truants, nonserious offenders, and initial serious offenders. Included in each intervention program is a list of action alternatives that may be utilized by the school-police teams. The evaluation design to be utilized and the appropriate hypotheses are presented to be tested. A detailed program schedule is provided and discussed. The appendixes to this document provide descriptions of team members, sample case file format, and an evaluation example to illustrate the use of the analysis of variance methodology to accept or reject relevant hypotheses.

86. _____. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. Models of Linkage Between Juvenile Courts and Public Schools. By J. A. Hill. Arizona State University. Washington, 1974. 120 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 19151)

This study compared five programs to determine their effectiveness in reducing recidivism, school truancy, school suspensions, and improving academic achievement of school-age delinquent youth. The programs studied were the Santa Clara County Court Liaison Program, the Arlington County School Liaison Teacher Returnee Counselor Project, the Roseville Focus Program of St. Paul, Minnesota, and the Teacher Corps Corrections Program of Sacramento, California. Onsite visitations were made to each program, and at each site data were gathered from school and court records; students, staff members, and administrators were interviewed; and the juvenile delinquency attitude scale was administered to court, school, and liaison personnel. Change in student performance from 1972 to 1973 was recorded for each of the five programs. The year's change in student performance included the following: an increase in attendance between 7 and 23.6 percent; a decrease in school suspension between 9 and 38 percent; a reduction in recidivism up to 46 percent; and an increase in achievement between 7 to 11.8 months' growth in 12 months. Several recommendations are made in the areas of initial planning, implementation, support, staff, and program evaluation. A list of references is included. The appendix contains a copy of the attitude scale used in the study and a bibliography.

87. WALES, D. Solutions to Vandalism. (Motion Picture). Rainbow Productions, Inc. Chicago, Illinois, 1978. 35 min., color, 16mm. (NCJ 49887)

This film, intended for use by educators, police community relations departments, and civic organizations, shows what several communities across the country have done about the problem of vandalism. The film depicts how six different communities have confronted willful destruction and violence in their areas. Local leaders have taken the initiative in each of the communities and found solutions to vandalism--in large cities like Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, where schoolchildren are involved in vandalism patrols; in Seattle, Washington, where a student vandalism committee conducts hearings on cases of vandalism; and in Los Angeles, California, where a school principal involved parents and teachers in an antivandalism campaign. In smaller urban areas, such as Billings, Montana, students were given a chance to work in the cafeteria, office, and library in order to instil in them a sense of responsibility. The suburban areas of Wauwatosa, Wisconsin, conducted a vandalism awareness program, where older students talked to the younger students about vandalism. In Berrien County, Michigan, a peer group counseling program is used to counteract vandalism. These programs have yielded definite

cost savings as well as less tangible but perhaps even more significant results, such as diverting youth from destructive pursuits toward productive activity. Possibly the most important aspect of these programs is the fact that the solutions were not handed down from Washington or State capitals, but were developed in the affected communities by local people themselves. Rural, urban, and suburban communities have been able to meet and devise innovative programs to solve their own vandalism problems. The film is intended to spark enthusiasm for community programs to fight vandalism.

88. WENK, E. A., Ed. Delinquency Prevention and the Schools: Emerging Perspectives. Beverly Hills, California, Sage Publications, Inc., 1975. 128 p. (NCJ 43071)

These articles express a number of diverse opinions and research findings on the prevention and control of school-related delinquency as well as on the role of the public school in generating and controlling delinquency. A number of the articles maintain that radical changes in educational focus and policies are critical to delinquency prevention. Credentialing, status definition, and institutional labeling of some youth as failures are believed by one author to establish a negative identity that is often believed and acted out by these youths in antisocial behavior. Another author suggests that schools can do little to solve the problems that produce delinquency. The results of a nationwide survey of school system representatives undertaken to identify existing and proposed school-based efforts to control delinquency are reported in one of the articles. The results of a successful 3-year police-school liaison project are discussed in another article, and three major types of drug abuse prevention programs in schools are compared. One article describes the development of a self-report instrument designed to measure delinquent orientation as revealed by youths' perceptions of themselves and their environment.

PART IV – SCHOOL BUILDINGS
PHYSICAL SECURITY

89. ABRAMSON, P. How Secure Are Your Schools? American School and University, v. 49, n. 8:29-31, 33. June 1977. (NCJ 48687)

To examine school security concerns and costs, questionnaires were sent to 1,000 school districts. The 313 valid responses (31.3 percent) were then assessed. Of responding districts, 34.5 percent indicated security was a major concern, 42.5 percent reported security to be of little or no concern, and 23 percent found security of concern but not a major problem. In general, the larger the school district, the greater the concern: 72 percent of districts with more than 25,000 pupils expressed major concern. The first response to security concerns appears to be to hire security guards. Over half the districts with 5,000 or more pupils have security guards, while fewer than 20 percent of the smaller districts have any security guards. Although many districts are reluctant to employ security guards, the majority employ one or more security devices. Local police patrols are used by four out of five districts surveyed, and well over half the districts stagger custodial hours as a security measure. Silent and audible alarm systems and special locks are also popular security devices, particularly in larger districts. By far, vandalism is viewed as the major school security problem regardless of the size of school districts. Washroom incidents, thefts from breakins, drugs, and internal theft were also reported as major problems by many school districts. The average large district spends $140,000 or more per year on security, while the average small district spends about $2,600. In most districts, the cost of vandalism exceeds the amount spent on security. However, this does not give an accurate picture of the cost of vandalism when the inadequate reporting and tabulating techniques of most districts are considered.

90. ALLEN, V. L. and D. B. GREENBERGER. Aesthetic Theory of Vandalism. Crime and Delinquency, v. 24, n. 3:309-321. July 1978. (NCJ 49288)

An aesthetic theory of school vandalism is proposed which focuses on the role of environmental or stimulus characteristics of destruction; tests of the theory are summarized and preventive measures are outlined. Numerous anecdotal accounts suggest that an important factor in vandalism is the enjoyment engendered by the destructive act. Destructive processes, like constructive creative processes, involve the transformation of material into new structures. The positive hedonic value of a stimulus is determined by its potential for eliciting arousal or lack thereof. Stimulus variables associated with the degree of pleasure or interest of the stimulus include its complexity/simplicity, its predictability or congruity, and its novelty. In general, complex, surprising or incongruous, and novel stimuli will have greater pleasure-arousing potential. Psychophysical characteristics such as intensity, size, and color also influence the degree of aesthetic enjoyment. Thus, if alteration of the stimulus object can make it more pleasing or interesting, such a change may be made even if it involves socially disapproved action. During destruction itself, enjoyment is derived

from the visual, auditory, and tactile-kinesthetic stimuli which accompany the act of rapid transformation (e.g., destruction). Following completion of the destructive act, the appearance of the object can again be described in terms of the aesthetic variables, and anticipation of postdestruction appearance may be an additional factor in the decision to destroy a particular object in a particular manner. Thus, the appearance of the stimulus object may provide vandalism-eliciting cues, and the stimuli associated with the act may serve to reinforce later similar acts. A series of experiments indicated that complexity of the stimulus object influences the desire to destroy the object, that surprise and complexity increase the pleasure experienced during destruction, and that destructive decisions involved assessments of the level of pleasure among various choices. Interviews conducted with 129 males, 18-20 years old, provided further evidence that aesthetic considerations play an important role in vandalism. Recommendations for future research into the aesthetics of vandalism are made. Practical suggestions are given for decreasing the likelihood of vandalism based on theory implications, both for architectural design and other environmental manipulations, and for education and counseling. Notes are included.

91. ARSON: HOW TO DEFEND AGAINST THE MOST DESTRUCTIVE SCHOOL CRIME. School Security, v. 1, n. 4:1-8. December 1976. (NCJ 51426)

Guidelines for guarding against arson and minimizing fire damages are presented in a newsletter for educators and administrators concerned with school security problems. Arson is the most expensive of crimes inflicted on school systems, with the cost of school fires amounting to over $100 million annually. Arson strikes in all school districts, from the inner city to rural areas. Although arson causes great monetary loss, the loss from disruption to education may be even greater. Little is known about why vandals set fire to schools. A survey by the National Fire Protection Association (NFPA) revealed the following facts: 76 percent of school fires are caused by arson; the most popular place for starting a fire is the classroom, followed by storage rooms and offices; and the prime time for starting school fires is between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m. The NFPA's recommendations for guarding school fires include keeping unauthorized persons out of the building, making certain that fire detection and sprinkler systems are working, immediately repairing or replacing faulty electrical wiring and equipment, properly maintaining all gas-burning equipment and appliances and gas piping, using good housekeeping practices, and informing the fire department of any special problems firefighters will face in the event of a fire. School officials should also be mindful of structural characteristics that contribute to the spread of fires. Protection against arson should incorporate both efforts to guard against intrusion and installation of fire protection equipment. Specific structural conditions relevant to fire safety are cited, with special attention to the problem of

fire safety in school libraries. Two case studies of school fires are recounted. The newsletter also touches on school security trends, the use of two-way radios to avert schoolbus hijackings, and school security products.

92. BALTIMORE CITY PUBLIC SCHOOLS. Security Division General Orders. Baltimore, Maryland, 1975. 32 p. (NCJ 34712)

This document contains the procedural and administrative regulations for Baltimore City public school security officers, and the texts of Maryland State laws and Baltimore City ordinances relating to school security. School security guards in Baltimore are given by law the power to preserve the public peace, prevent crime, arrest offenders, and protect rights and property in and around schools and other Department of Education properties as fully as regular police officers of Baltimore City. Among the subjects covered in the Security Division General Orders are the security officer's authority and power of arrest; the standard of personal conduct of security officers; the issued equipment and attire; procedures for requesting the assistance of Baltimore City police; and procedures for search of prisoners. Orders are also included on juvenile court referrals, statements to the news media, crime reports, injuries in the line of duty, and disciplinary actions against security officers. Laws and ordinances dealing with such subjects as school visitors, the responsibilities of school guards, deadly weapons on school property, drug and alcohol use on school property, and searches of school property such as lockers and desks are also presented.

93. BASS, S. Council of the Great City Schools; Advisory Panel Meeting: Special Projects. Washington, 1977. 15 p.
MICROFICHE (NCJ 51404)

Brief descriptions of 30 programs that have been successful in reducing school vandalism are presented. The programs were selected from 97 responses to a questionnaire circulated throughout the country by the Council of the Great City Schools. The following criteria were used in selecting the programs: reduction of incidents of vandalism or dollars spent because of such incidents, replicability, comprehensiveness, relative sophistication; and innovativeness. The programs fall within the general categories of building security, target hardening, architectural design, offender accountability/responsibility, behavior change in students, human relations, community relations, institutional change, and curriculum innovation. The program descriptions vary in length, but generally are limited to the major innovative features and/or outstanding accomplishments of the program.

94. CHICAGO BOARD OF EDUCATION. School Security Manual. Chicago, 1976. 42 p. (NCJ 38403)

Information and procedures for school security officers, principals, and teachers concerning the role and duties of security personnel and actions to take in specific situations are presented. Arrests of students, locker inspections, false fire alarm procedures, cooperation with law enforcement agencies, and other topics are discussed. Brief definitions of certain crimes committed by students, such as aggravated assault and picketing, are provided.

95. CLEMENTS, C. B. School Relations Bureau: A Program of Police Intervention. Criminal Justice and Behavior, v. 2, n. 4:358-371. December 1975. (NCJ 31199)

This paper presents a general rationale for police prevention-diversion programs and describes a 3-year project in which police teams were assigned to schools. The School Relations Bureau (SRB) of the Montgomery, Alabama, Police Department was begun in late 1970 as a two-person team of officers designed to serve a liaison function between the public schools and the police department. One of the original goals of the bureau was to prevent the escalation of potentially dangerous situations in and around the public schools of Montgomery. A significant secondary goal from its inception has been the improvement of relationships between police and youth. The two-person bureau was expanded to eight persons the second year. In the spring of 1972, the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration approved a grant request from the Montgomery Police Department which allowed the bureau to expand to 16 officers and additionally provided funds for training, supervision, and evaluation. Features of this program included job specific training, supervision and consultation by a full-time psychologist, and numerous informal police-youth contacts. Students and teacher acceptance was high. Most officers successfully moved into helping roles, and several specific benefits accrued to students.

96. CREEKMORE, E. L. How Big Cities Train for School Security: A Nationwide Survey. Security World, v. 11, n. 2:28-29, 46. January 1974. (NCJ 35181)

The results of a study of security training procedures in school districts in the United States with 10,000 or more students are presented. It was found that less than half of the school districts that employ their own security officers have a formal training program for them and that the most prevalent program is on-the-job train-

ing. The author states that the results indicate that there appear to be no standards or transferability in training and that training efforts have no significance beyond that accorded by local governments.

97. ERTUKEL, D. School Security: A Student Point of View. National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, v. 58, n. 384:44-49. October 1974. (NCJ 42729)

A student describes various school security programs and concludes that the most essential ingredient for success is the cooperative involvement of all parts of the school community. School security programs in Prince Georges County, Montgomery County, and Baltimore City, Maryland, are highlighted.

98. FINKELSTEIN, A. B. Principles of the Security System Concept. Security World, v. 13, n. 9:20-23. September 1976. (NCJ 36592)

The concepts behind each element in a security system and the forces that operate on them to help in the selection of a cost-effective system are discussed. The author identifies the three elements of a security system as detection, command/control/communication, and response. He then discusses each element separately to furnish information for implementing this type of system.

99. JUILLERAT, E. E. Fires and Vandals: How To Make Them Both Unwelcome in Your Schools. American School Board Journal, v. 159, n. 7:23-26. January 1972. (NCJ 42741)

It is maintained that incendiary school fires, which are the majority, can be prevented or limited in spread by securing buildings against break-ins and providing automatic sprinkler systems. Incidents of arson in various schools and school systems are detailed, along with the costs of destruction. Eight ways to prevent or contain fires are listed. An adequate sprinkler system is considered the single most effective measure. In addition to putting out fires, in many cases it controls smoke and gas which can be deadly to those in the building.

100. KRAJICK, K. On Patrol in the "Blackboard Jungle." Police Magazine, v. 1, n. 2:48-54. May 1978. (NCJ 47201)

The pros and cons of beat police officers, the school resource officer, and the private security guard as means of combating crime in

schools are considered. Police officers working schools as they would any other beat is considered by most educators a poor approach to building a constructive educational environment. Questions concerning the violations of students' civil liberties are raised. Should student behavior degenerate to such an extent that this type of police presence is required, clear guidelines for police operations agreed upon by school officials and police are thought to be necessary by those who have been involved in such situations. While many schools call in police as needed, only Detroit (Michigan), San Diego (California), Atlanta (Georgia), and Chicago (Illinois) have elected to put in full-time officers to patrol the halls. These cities find that with the passage of time the police presence is accepted and even welcomed by faculty and students. Begun in Flint, Michigan, in 1958, the school resource officer program uses its personnel to prevent crime by teaching students about their behavioral responsibilities and relating to them more as a counselor than an authoritative law enforcement officer. School officials in most cities using this program think it worthwhile, although some observers call it inadequate to meet serious and widespread student behavior problems. Concerning private security guards for schools, they cost less than regular police services, but the services provided suffer because such guards lack training and experience in dealing with juveniles. Many observers suggest that criminal justice schools offer parapolice programs specifically for prospective school officers.

101. KRAVONTKA, S. J. CCTV (Closed Circuit Television) System Design for School Security. Security World, v. 11, n. 2:22-23, 48-49. January 1974. (NCJ 35178)

Security systems that have been or are being designed for some public schools using closed circuit television (CCTV) equipment are evaluated. Systems used in two Brooklyn (New York) junior high schools are briefly described and the detailed case history of the planning and installation of a CCTV system in a third school including features suggested by the two initial installations is presented. Sketches showing the configuration of equipment and control unit design are included.

102. MACRI, D. A. Community-Oriented Vandalism Prevention. Crime Prevention Review, v. 2, n. 1:17-23. October 1974. (NCJ 37024)

By involving the community heavily in the planning and day-to-day processes of a large elementary school in Los Angeles that had been plagued by vandalism, the problem has been eliminated and the school environment has been improved. One of the most important aspects of the community involvement program has been the requirement that

all teachers meet with members of the community outside of school. Open classrooms permit visits by parents at any time, and Spanish-language speaking aides and tutors are available.

103. McGUIRE, W. What Can We Do About Violence? Today's Education, v. 64, n. 4:22-23. November-December 1975. (NCJ 34923)

The nature and causes of the growing problem of violence and vandalism in the schools are briefly discussed, and recommendations for preventing and managing school violence are outlined. The author recommends, among other things, that teachers publicly admit the extent of the violence problem, that school security against intruders be improved, and that violence against students as a teaching technique or control device be eliminated. It is also suggested that alternative educational programs be developed for students who are bored or unmoved by traditional approaches, and that training on how to handle aggression and disruptive behavior be given to teachers.

104. MICHIGAN OFFICE OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE PROGRAMS. Cops in the Schools: A Look at Police-School Liaison Programs in the State of Michigan. By R. Mulder and D. Williams. Allendale, Michigan, Grand Valley State Colleges, 1975. 94 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 19505)

This report assesses the objectives and progress of Police School Liaison Programs and recommends that the officer return to the role of liaison and referral, dropping the law enforcement role that have been adopted. Major criticisms are that either no objectives exist or that they are sufficiently vague as to preclude evaluation. Another problem is that in many of the schools, between 80 and 90 percent of the police school liaison officer's time is spent on police work such as investigating stolen property reports rather than on counseling, which was the original intent of the program. The authors also suggest that these officers be given some minimum education in social and behavioral sciences. The authors also point out that the emphasis of some of the programs has been shifted from changing attitudes to changing behavior. The appendixes include related materials, summaries of attitudinal responses from three school districts, and a 13-page bibliography.

105. MORRISSEY, D. A. and J. E. JINES. Potential Violence--Reduction Through School and Community Participation. Crime Prevention Review, v. 5, n. 1:17-24. October 1977. (NCJ 51421)

A study conducted by the Resource Commission on Potential Violence of the Whittier Union High School District in Los Angeles, Califor-

nia assessed the potential for violence on campus. Appointed in 1973, the commission was asked to examine the present situation in the schools from the viewpoint of students, parents, and employees and to gather information on how to prevent violent acts, to cope with and control violence, and to reduce fear of violence. It was given responsibility to develop recommendations for consideration by the administrative bodies and the community. Surveys were conducted with teachers, school employees, students, and parents. A written questionnaire was sent to all school employees to assess perceptions and attitudes in relation to school violence. Literature in the field was also reviewed. The reported perceptions, attitudes, and feelings were synthesized and provided the basis for a report to the faculties and to local communications media. Panel presentations were made to schools, teacher associations, and community organizations. Data on parent perceptions indicated feelings of security in sending their children to school, and student perceptions showed that some schools had environments of greater fear than others. Girls' restrooms were considered threatening places by both groups. A high percentage of employees felt that students respond to teacher directions in a classroom; however, there was more anxiety in regard to teacher control in groups outside the classroom. Problems that outsiders bring to a campus was a main concern. The commission recommended that maximum local school enrollment be encouraged, that specific programs be developed to increase student supervision on campus, and that services of street counselors or paraprofessionals be utilized. An interagency conference was held in 1975 as a follow-up to the study; successful factors in reducing crime and fear of crime were noted and new recommendations were made. A list of commission accomplishments is included showing that 88 percent of students felt safe on campus in a 1976-1977 survey, anxiety has deescalated, and an employee protection policy has been adopted. The questionnaire administered to the teachers is included.

106. MURPHY, H. H. Vandals, Arsonists, Bombs, Dogs. Rosslyn, Virginia, American Association of School Administrators, 1973. 5 p.
MICROFICHE (NCJ 36589)

In this paper, presented at the American Association of School Administrators' 1973 convention, an administrator tells how the Toledo public schools developed security plans to minimize damages resulting from student unrest. The first step taken by the Toledo schools was to take a strong stand against violence at athletic events. Next, they established a systemwide lighted-school program and emphasized total community involvement in after-school use of school buildings. The third step involved the development and passage of the Toledo Safe Passage to School Law, which fines or jails those convicted of assault (either physical or verbal) on a student or any other person going to or from school or on school grounds. Finally, they established a sophisticated radio-telephone communica-

tions system to cover basic school security and a public relations program which covers permits for use of school facilities by both inschool and out-of-school groups.

107. RUBEL, R. J., Ed. Identifying Your School's Crime Problems: Simple Steps That Precede Costly Action. College Park, Maryland, Institute for Reduction of Crime, Inc., 1978. 32 p. (NCJ 49757)

This monograph presents guidelines for school officials involved in identifying and analyzing crime problems and in evaluating security programs. Simple steps are outlined for avoiding data collection problems that cause confusion and misinterpretation of student violence problems within school districts. The steps include definition of criminal acts, development of incident profiles, and analysis of the prepared information and its implications. The second part of the monograph deals with preevaluation problems that may effect the eventual development of a security program. The focus is upon the ultimate uses of the evaluation materials, the kind of information needed, and the way in which the findings should be presented. Charts are provided which illustrate the incident report form, the differentiation between the success or failure of the program or theory, and the planning/evaluation feedback loop. Tables and references are included.

108. SCHOOL SECURITY SYSTEMS. Nation's Schools, v. 94, n. 2:31-36. August 1974. (NCJ 35249)

Intended to aid school administrators in implementing a suitable security system for their school, this article outlines factors which will determine the type of system needed and describes the various security system options. Knowing the kind of damage being done to the school is absolutely necessary before security equipment can be selected, the author states. Similarly, school officials must decide the type of action they want to take against the vandal--deterrence or arrest--before selecting security equipment, since the decision to capture or frighten greatly affects the type of security equipment needed. Finally, the author advises that the administrator consult a qualified engineer who has the technical skill to design an entire security system and who has no interest in selling equipment. A series of equipment sketches are provided which give a brief description of the device or system, the pros and cons of using it, and its cost. These devices include silent alarms, audible and visible local alarms, space detection alarms, and closed-circuit television. This article also includes a feature insert which describes the personal alarm transmitter system used by Bronx High School teachers.

109. SCHOOLHOUSE: DESIGNING SCHOOLS TO MINIMIZE DAMAGE FROM VANDALISM AND NORMAL ROUGH PLAY. New York, Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc., 1974. 8 p. (NCJ 18778)

Several design responses are suggested to control access and proximity to school buildings and to limit the damageability of walls and ground materials. Four categories of property damage are identified. They include malicious vandalism, accidental damage, nonmalicious property damage, and hidden maintenance damage. Suggestions are offered on means to protect the areas which invite or are vulnerable to these kinds of damage--school roofs, entrances, rough play places, school walls, and other surfaces such as ceilings, windows, and ground surfaces.

110. SCHWARTZ, S. New Way To Fight School Vandalism. American School and University, v. 45, p. 54-55. June 1973. (NCJ 42687)

Described is a vandalism prevention program conducted by the civil defense of Syracuse, New York, and staffed by unarmed, uniformed volunteers who patrol school grounds at irregular intervals during the summer months.

111. SURRATT, J. E. A Survey and Analysis of Special Police Services in Large Public School Districts of the United States. Doctoral Dissertation, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina, 1974. 290 p. (NCJ 53427)

A nationwide survey of large public high school officials and 383 chief law enforcement officers was conducted to study the use of special police services in maintaining school security. Specific objectives of the study included the following: (1) to determine the extent to which special police services and school security measures were utilized; (2) to determine where fiscal responsibility for public services lies; and (3) to examine the desirability of utilizing special police services. The responses of school and police officials were considered separately as they related to police services in six areas: after-school events, building and grounds protection after school hours, school arrival-departure safety, hall and grounds patrolling during the day, instruction or counseling, and security measures taken by large school systems. When applicable, police and school officials' responses were compared to determine their intersubjectivity. The major findings of the survey indicated that more than two-thirds of the large school systems used the services of local police departments for protection at after-school events and school arrival-departure safety, and fewer than half used the other special police services. Most special police services were only recently established, and their use increased significantly between 1960 and 1973. Disagreement generally existed

between superintendents and chiefs of police concerning the proper source of fiscal and supervisory responsibility for special police services, and most of the large school systems had used school security forces, installed security devices, and many (20 percent) had used undercover agents. It is recommended that better communication be established between the police and school officials and that police and school administrators cooperate in determining fiscal responsibility for police-school services. Appendixes contain the study instruments and maps identifying the location of responding schools and police departments.

112. U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE. National Institute of Education. Vandalism Prevention. By D. Coursen. Arlington, Virginia, National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1975. 32 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 36610)

Methods of control differ for the two basic types of vandalism, malicious and nonmalicious. This article discusses strategies for the prevention of both types. Perhaps because security appears to be the only way to control malicious vandalism, it is often made the focal point of antivandalism programs. The most important consideration is the relationship between the cost of a security system and its potential value to the school. A comprehensive antivandalism program using security devices as part of an overall plan is often suggested. Unfortunately, the literature is full of suggestions and assertions, but remarkably short on concrete facts documented by scientific research. There are two basic approaches to controlling malicious vandalism. Deterrent programs treat vandalism symptomatically, usually by emphasizing school security. The diagnostic approach attempts to prevent vandalism by attacking its causes. Thoughtful building design can greatly reduce nonmalicious vandalism. The well-designed building will be less vulnerable to normal usage and to malicious and nonmalicious damage.

113. U.S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design: Broward County, Florida--School Demonstration Plan. By T. D. Crowe, et. al. Arlington, Virginia, Westinghouse Electric Corporation, 1976. 210 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 36574)

This document discusses the rationale for selecting the Broward County (Florida) school system as the crime prevention through environmental design (CPTED) demonstration site for the school environment. The report contains the CPTED demonstration strategies and design directives, describing the strategies developed for demonstration at

the selected sites, as well as the implementation plan and evaluation plan for execution of the strategies and for measurement of their results. Evaluation instruments and data are appended. See also NCJ 36571, -72, -73, and -75.

114. U.S. DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. Portland Public Schools Burglary Prevention Project: Final Evaluation Report, No. 2. By D. A. Pearson and C. Goff. Salem, Oregon Law Enforcement Council, 1977. 76 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 43350)

Installation of silent-alarm anti-intrusion devices in 11 pilot schools resulted in a 42 percent reduction in property loss over 2 years and a 27 percent reduction in burglary frequency. The 11 pilot schools were paired with 11 control schools in this Portland, Oregon, Project. During the 2-year installation trial (February 1, 1973-January 31, 1975), the control schools' burglary frequency declined by 11 percent, compared to the target schools' decline of 27 percent. The controls' property loss increased 37 percent, compared to a 42 percent decrease in the alarm-equipped schools. In control schools, the value of property recovered increased by 27 percent, while in target schools it decreased 61 percent. However, this reflects the quicker arrival of police while the property was still in the building; this reduced the value of both property stolen and recovered. Clearance rates for both pilot and control schools increased 6 percent during the trial period. During the test, the socioeconomic characteristics of the school neighborhoods remained essentially the same. Eight socioeconomic factors were studied in connection with burglary frequency and property loss. Only "percentage of students attending school" showed a significant association; "R value" correlation between attendance and burglary frequency was -.54; between attendance and property loss -.60. Both were significant at the .001 level. This finding supports previous evidence that alienation from school is highly associated with criminal behavior. A cost-benefit analysis of the alarm installation and maintenance versus value of property recovered, stolen, or damaged showed that costs exceeded savings by about $287,628. However, this is based on preinstallation net losses. Since the loss rates have been climbing steadily, the annual savings of the system could actually be more. If benefits were figured on the basis of loss rates in comparable schools rather than projected from preinstallation loss rates, the system would pay for itself. Tables present data collected for this study, including burglary incidence by time, by school, and by month, as well as property loss figures, clearance rates, and offender characteristics.

115. _____. Law Enforcement Assistance Administration. National Institute of Law Enforcement and Criminal Justice. Scope, Nature, and Prevention of Vandalism. By Q. Y. Kwan. Washington, 1972. 30 p.
MICROFICHE (NCJ 32818)

Short- and long-range approaches to the problem of vandalism are proposed. Architectural and environmental design considerations figure prominently in the short-range proposals. Suggestions such as unbreakable glass, fenceless parks, well-lighted public areas, and concrete-encased plumbing fixtures are presented. Citizen participation, both passive and active, is recommended. Passive participation would result from the increased use of public areas. Active participation involves the reporting of vandalism incidents. Long-range solutions include massive behavior modification schemes that operate by preoccupying the juveniles with constructive activities and parental liability and restitution schemes.

116. USER'S GUIDE TO ANTI-INTRUSION HARDWARE. Security World, v. 12, n. 11:12-24. December 1975. (NCJ 31069)

The article includes a discussion of the different types of security alarm systems and their uses, a buyer's directory of manufacturers and distributors of security hardware, and a technical guide to anti-intrusion devices. The directory lists the company name, address, and the product or products produced. The technical guide indentifies 14 different categories of anti-intrusion devices (from photoelectric beams to video alarms) and briefly discusses the principles of operation and application of each.

117. VANDALS DON'T LIKE THE SPOTLIGHT. American School and University, v. 43, n. 5:26-28. January 1971. (NCJ 42686)

The article describes a vandalism prevention method used by the Syracuse (New York) Central School System that involved the installation of outdoor lighting systems at each school within the system. School authorities indicated that the lighting is an indispensable part of the city's antivandalism program, and that the public has commented favorably and has increased its nighttime use of the well-lit buildings.

118. VESTERMARK, S. D. JR. Managing the Bomb Threat in School. Assets Protection, v. 1, n. 4:20-26. 1976. (NCJ 35870)

A decision model (in the form of a decision tree) is presented for school administrators faced with bomb threats. The process of handling such threats is broken down into a series of 7 decision steps with 16 possible

outcomes. The decision tree is presented as tool for rehearsing and examining the rationale, decisions to be made, and their potential implications. A bomb threat report form is included which is intended to aid in obtaining information relevant to the decision to be made.

119. _____. Organizing, Staffing, and Servicing School Security Programs. Washington, Academy for Educational Development, Inc., 1972. 30 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 36640)

This memorandum is based on the assumption that comprehensive school security programs are an indispensable part of the basic educational process conducted within the school. It considers the school as the primary unit of school security planning from three related perspectives: the educational and administrative organization of the schools as it bears on the problems of security; the roles and responsibilities of specialized security personnel; and the roles of the various personnel in the school with respect to the maintenance of order and personal safety. The organization recommended for school security activities is based on a directorate of security services at the central board of education, area security commands at the community school district level, and a school security coordinating group in each school. The specific tasks and roles of the security specialist, the security investigator, and security guards are also outlined and discussed. In addition, suggested roles for school administrators, teachers, custodial and maintenance staff, and especially student services staff are detailed. The use of crisis management resources is highlighted.

120. _____. Students and Community in School Security. Washington, Academy for Educational Development, Inc., 1972. 41 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 36639)

This memorandum explores student roles in the maintenance of security and the reduction of security problems in New York City public schools and possible arrangements in feeder communities to help with school security problems. Emphasis is principally on students acting within the senior high school setting. Community arrangements and community factors are treated as supplementary to the primary purpose of building a more stable inschool community. Consideration of the major restraints on student roles in school security leads to a discussion of some of the constraints on community participation. The memorandum concludes with an examination of the steps which appear to be required in developing a student-centered program for student and community participation in school security programs where students themselves perform visible security roles.

121. VESTERMARK, S. D. JR. and P. D. BLAUVELT. Controlling Crime in the School: A Complete Security Handbook for Administrators. West Nyack, New York, Parker Publishing Company, Inc., 1978. 354 p. (NCJ 51093)

Written for school administrators responsible for school security, this volume details the development and reinforcement of a basic security plan and outlines responses to major security problems. The first section deals with developing a security program suitable to the needs of individual school administrators; it emphasizes the general goals and specific procedures necessary to the formulation of an effective school security plan and it provides information for tailoring a program to specific needs. The developmental steps which are discussed include the following: identifying security needs, building a school community, choosing a basic security program, designating types of personnel for the security job, and policy and operational planning. In the second section, the major types of criminal acts which educators are likely to encounter are considered along with possible remedies. Suggestions for combining the general approaches developed in the first section with other sound security procedures are offered. The prevention of and response to major types of school crime are discussed, along with vandalism control, bomb threats, the drug problem, controlling rumors, mass disruptions, and the role of the police. Finally, several important approaches to supplementing a basic school security program are outlined; the first involves the student role in school security, while the second centers on the way in which changes in constitutional law encourage each member of the school community to take a more active role in protecting the school and learning environment. A model for involving students in school security is detailed. Tables, photos, and incident report forms are included. References and an index are provided.

122. WALKER, M. G. School Security: A Growing Concern. National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, v. 60, n. 397:48-53. February 1976. (NCJ 51369)

The importance of school security programs for dealing with vandalism, trespassing, drug traffic, crowd control, automobile traffic, and such emergencies as fires, bombs, and storms, is discussed. Urban schools long have been plagued by vandalism, but smaller cities and rural areas are also experiencing this problem. Over a 4-year period in the late 1960's, vandalism in schools increased by 38 percent. Other crimes in schools--assaults on teachers, crimes by nonstudents, narcotics incidents, robberies--occurred with even greater frequency. In attempting to combat these problems, schools usually first must find ways of financing security measures. Often a security program can be financed with money formerly spent to replace or repair property damaged by vandals. School security involves

more than the prevention of vandalism and crime. Another objective is to assist administrators in providing an environment conducive to sound education. Some schools combat vandalism by having custodians on duty in the evening. Protection in the absence of custodial personnel usually is provided by a security patrol and/or an electronic alarm system. A security patrol can also assist in crowd and traffic control, detection of drug offenders, and regulation of nonstudent entrance to the school. Many districts use centrally monitored systems connected to a local security firm. The importance of security planning has come to be recognized in the design of new school facilities. Student identification cards with photographs have been used by many schools to prevent trespassing by nonstudents. Supervised entry and exit from parking areas often is a necessity. A good school security program can also lessen the likelihood of crowd violence at sports events. Every school requires a detailed plan for handling fires, bomb threats, severe weather, and other emergencies. All school systems pay for security. The expense is either for a preventive program, or for the repair and replacement of supplies and equipment.

123. WATSON, B. C. and L. D. HAMMOND. Schooling, Violence, and Vandalism: Promising Practices and Policy Alternatives. Undated. 5 p. MICROFICHE (NCJ 35471)

Reporting briefly on a survey of 15 school districts (some of which had witnessed decreases in violence), the authors present some policy alternatives based on the observed successful practices. The recommendations generally call for a federally funded program to establish national criteria for programs while at the same time addressing each school and school system individually. They also call for the training of school security officers.

124. ZEISEL, J. Stopping School Property Damage: Design and Administrative Guidelines To Reduce School Vandalism. Rosslyn, Virginia, American Association of School Administrators, 1976. 10 p. (NCJ 38464)

This booklet is designed for people concerned with problems of property damage and vandalism in planned and existing school buildings. It is directed primarily toward arriving at design responses to the problems of misnamed vandalism (accidental damage), nonmalicious property damage (illegal alterations of the environment to facilitate legitimate activities), and hidden maintenance damage (normal but hard to service wear and tear). Individual sections are meant to be used separately if desired. The section on building exterior design responses details ways to reduce the ongoing cost of property damage by careful design of a school's physical plant, particularly in early design phases when the overall concept of the building is

being developed. Ways to minimize costs of property damage and maintenance through interior design and materials specification are also outlined. A third section discusses ways to cut property damage costs through administrative programs aimed at involving students in the school, at using personnel effectively, and at keeping "eyes on the school." The concept of a "student vandalism account," entrusted to students each term, against which payments for vandalism are drawn and from which the balance is available for student activities, is among many innovative possibilities described and analyzed. For every major design issue--both interior and exterior--design accountability checklists present one general question and then a series of specific "yes-no" questions to determine if the issue has been taken into account by the architect in his or her design. These checklists are intended as a focus for discussion between client, user, and architect during design review. An annotated bibliography presents selected literature on vandalism and property damage with indepth summaries of important works.

APPENDIX A—LIST OF SOURCES

1. American Psychiatric Association
   1700 18th Street, NW.
   Washington, DC 20009

2. National Education Association of the United States
   1201 16th Street, NW.
   Washington, DC 20036

3. Available only through NCJRS Microfiche Program and NCJRS Document Loan Program.

4. National Council on Crime and Delinquency
   615 East 14th Street
   Des Moines, IA 50316

5. Mitchell Gebhardt Film Company
   1380 Bush Street
   San Francisco, CA 94109

6. National Committee for Citizens in Education
   Suite 410
   Wilde Lake Village Green
   Columbia, MD 21044

7. Kansas State University
   Division of Continuing Education
   Manhattan, KS 66506

8. California Office of the Attorney General
   500 Wells Fargo Bank Building
   5th Street and Capitol Mall
   Sacramento, CA 95814

9. Same as No. 3.

10. Sage Publications, Inc.
    275 South Beverly Drive
    Beverly Hills, CA 90212

11. Same as No. 10.

12. Educational Research Service, Inc.
    1815 North Fort Myer Drive
    Arlington, VA 22209

13. D.C. Heath and Company
    125 Spring Street
    Lexington, MA 02173

14. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
    Office of Education
    400 Maryland Avenue, SW.
    Washington, DC 20203

15. National School Public Relations Association
    1801 North Moore Street
    Arlington, VA 22209

16. Same as No. 3.

17. Same as No. 13.

18. Institute for Reduction of Crime, Inc.
    College Park, MD 20740

19. Same as No. 18.

20. Security World Publishing Company, Inc.
    2639 South LaCienega Boulevard
    Los Angeles, CA 90034

21. National Fire Protection Association
    470 Atlantic Avenue
    Boston, MA 02210

22. Same as No. 3.

23. Same as No. 3.

24. Same as No. 3.

25. Responsible Action
P.O. Box 924
Davis, CA 95616

26. Superintendent of Documents
U.S. Government Printing Office
Washington, DC 20402

27. Human Sciences Research, Inc.
Westgate Research Park
7710 Old Springfield Road
McLean, VA 22101

28. Same as No. 3.

29. Available only through NCJRS
Document Loan Program.

30. National Public Radio
2025 M Street, NW.
Washington, DC 20036

31. Same as No. 30.

32. International City Management
Association
1140 Connecticut Avenue, NW.
Washington, DC 20036

33. Same as No. 13.

34. Statewide Youth Advocacy
Project
429 Powers Building
Rochester, NY 14614

35. Joint Venture
Room 200
2001 S Street, NW.
Washington, DC 20009

36. Michie Company
Box 57
Charlottesville, VA 22902

37. National Organization of Legal
Problems of Education
825 Western
Topeka, KS 66606

38. Same as No. 2.

39. Dade County Public Schools
1410 NE. 2d Avenue
Miami, FL 33132

40. Same as No. 3.

41. University Microfilms
300 North Zeeb Road
Ann Arbor, MI 48106

42. Northwestern University
School of Law
357 East Chicago Avenue
Chicago, IL 60611

43. Phi Delta Kappa
8th Street and Union Avenue
Bloomington, IN 47401

44. National Center for the Study
of Corporal Punishment and
Alternatives in the Schools
833 Ritter Hall South
Department of Psychology
Temple University
Philadelphia, PA 19122

45. Pennsylvania Human Relations
Commission
Education Division
100 Cameron Street
Harrisburg, PA 17101

46. Eric Document Reproduction
Service
P.O. Box 190
Arlington, VA 22210

47. Same as No. 2.

48. Children's Defense Fund
1746 Cambridge Street
Cambridge, MA 02138

49. U.S. Congress
House Select Committee on
Narcotics Abuse and Control
Washington, DC 20510

50. Child Protection Center
Children's Hospital
National Medical Center
111 Michigan Avenue, NW.
Washington, DC 20010

51. Same as No. 4.

52. Same as No. 29.

53. Same as No. 14.

54. Same as No. 18.

55. Same as No. 8.

56. Same as No. 4.

57. Same as No. 39.

58. Federal Legal Publications, Inc.
95 Morton Street
New York, New York 10014

59. District of Columbia Office of Criminal Justice Plans and Analysis
1329 E Street, NW.
Washington, DC 20004

60. Same as No. 3.

61. National Association of Secondary School Principals
1904 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091

62. Same as No. 4.

63. Same as No. 61.

64. National School Boards Association
1055 Thomas Jefferson St., NW.
Washington, DC 20007

65. Same as No. 20.

66. Cadre Publications Center
College of Education
600 South College
University of Tulsa
Tulsa, OK 74104

67. International Association of Chiefs of Police
11 Firstfield Road
Gaithersburg, MD 20760

68. Same as No. 10.

69. Same as No. 3.

70. Same as No. 61.

71. Same as No. 61.

72. Same as No. 64.

73. North Carolina Department of Public Instruction
Education Building
Raleigh, NC 27611

74. Davis Publishing Company
250 Potrero Street
Santa Cruz, CA 95060

75. California School Boards Association
800 9th Street
Sacramento, CA 95814

76. Same as No. 41.

77. Same as No. 67.

78. Seattle Public Schools
Administrative and Service Center
815 4th Avenue North
Seattle, WA 98109

79. Same as No. 7.

80. Texas Education Agency
201 East 11th Street
Austin, TX 78701

81. Same as No. 8.

82. Same as No. 61.

83. Same as No. 26.

84. Same as No. 46.

85. National Technical Information Service
5285 Port Royal Road
Springfield, VA 22151

86. Same as No. 3.

87. Perennial Education, Inc.
477 Roger Williams
P.O. Box 855 Ravinia
Highland Park, IL 60035

88. Same as No. 10.

89. North American Publishing Company
134 North 13th Street
Philadelphia, PA 19107

90. Same as No. 4.

91. Microfilm Publishing, Inc.
P.O. Box 210
Wykagyl Station
New Rochelle, NY 10804

92. Same as No. 29.

93. Council of the Great City Schools
1707 H Street, NW.
Washington, DC 20006

94. Chicago Board of Education
228 North LaSalle Street
Chicago, IL 60601

95. Same as No. 10.

96. Same as No. 20.

97. Same as No. 61.

98. Same as No. 20.

99. Same as No. 64.

100. Criminal Justice Publications, Inc.
801 2d Avenue
New York, NY 10017

101. Same as No. 20.

102. Same as No. 8.

103. Same as No. 2.

104. Same as No. 3.

105. Same as No. 8.

106. Same as No. 46.

107. Same as No. 18.

108. McGraw-Hill
1221 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10020

109. Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc.
477 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10022

110. Same as No. 90.

111. Same as No. 41.

112. Same as No. 3.

113. Same as No. 29.

114. Oregon Law Enforcement Council
2001 Front Street, NE.
Salem, OR 97303

115. Same as No. 3.

116. Same as No. 20.

117. Same as No. 90.

118. Territorial Imperative, Inc.
5201 Old Middleton Road
Madison, WI 53705

119. Same as No. 3.

120. Same as No. 3.

121. Parker Publishing Company, Inc.
West Nyack, NY 10994

122. Same as No. 61.

123. Same as No. 3.

124. American Association of School Administrators
1801 North Moore Street
Rosslyn, VA 22209

APPENDIX B—RESOURCE AGENCIES

These organizations are addressing the problem of crime and disruption in the schools.

American Association of School Administrators
1801 N. Moore Street
Arlington, VA 22209
(monthly newsletter)

American Federation of Teachers
11 Dupont Circle
Washington, DC 20036
(information packet on school violence monthly journal; assistance to local affiliates)

Center for Law and Education
6 Appian Way
Cambridge, MA 02138
(publications about legal rights of students, including the Education Law Bulletin with indepth coverage of legal issues)

Children's Defense Fund
1520 New Hampshire Avenue, NW.
Washington, DC 20036
(publications, special interest in suspensions and expulsions)

Citizens Policy Center
1323 Anacapa Street
Santa Barbara, CA 93101
(Open Road/Student Involvement project encourages student responsibility in select intermediate and secondary schools)

Constitutional Rights Foundation
6310 San Vincent Boulevard
Los Angeles, CA 90048
(active in law-related education, with curriculums published by Scholastic Books)

Council of School Board Attorneys
1055 Thomas Jefferson Street, NW.
Washington, DC 20007
(workshops, newsletter)

Institute for Reduction of Crime, Inc.
Box 730
College Park, MD 20740
(training workshops, technical assistance to school districts, monographs)

International Juvenile Officers Association
16220 Wausau Avenue
North Holland, IL 60473
(newsletter, magazine, annual meeting and training conference)

National Academy for School Executives
1801 N. Moore Street
Arlington, VA 22209
(workshops)

National Association of Secondary School Principals
Research Department
1904 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091
(monthly journal and other publications, regional workshops)

National Center for the Study of Corporal Punishment and Alternatives in the Schools
833 Ritter Hall South
Department of Psychology
Temple University
Philadelphia, PA 19122
(information about corporal punishment and alternative forms of school discipline, publications)

National Committee for Citizens
in Education
Suite 410
Wilde Lake Village Green
Columbia, MD 20740
(telephone hotline (800-NETWORK)
for parents to share information;
publications about citizen
involvement in schools)

National Education Association
Teacher Rights Division
1201 16th Street, NW.
Washington, DC 20036
(handbooks and information for
teachers; cosponsor of annual
conference on nonviolent
solutions; assistance to
affiliates by grants,
technical assistance, specific
assistance during crises)

National Educational Strategy
Association
1 Niles Street
Hartford, CT 06105
(assistance in racial and
sexual discrimination problems

National Project and Task Force
on Desegregation Strategies
Suite 300
1860 Lincoln Street
Denver, CO 80295
(Legal Analysis, a free
publication about trends in
school desegregation law)

National School Boards Association
1055 Thomas Jefferson Street, NW.
Washington, DC 20007
(clearinghouse of school district
policies, monthly journal)

Rensis Likert Associates, Inc.
630 City Center Building
Ann Arbor, MI 48104
(readymade tests of social
climate for all levels of
education and educational
administration)

FEDERAL AGENCIES

U. S. Department of Justice
Community Relations Service
550 11th Street, NW.
Washington, DC 20530
(Useful publications; regional
offices that provide assistance
when there are problems related
to civil rights violations;
active in desegregation-related
issues)

Law Enforcement Assistance
Administration
Office of Juvenile Justice and
Delinquency Prevention
633 Indiana Avenue, NW.
Washington, DC 20530
(Funds programs that are action
oriented as well as research
programs. Sponsors the
National School Violence
Prevention Resource Center
which provides training and
technical assistance to schools
and school districts)

U. S. Department of Health,
Education, and Welfare
Office of the Assistant Secretary
for Planning and Evaluation
Hubert Humphrey Building
200 Independence Avenue, SW.
Washington, DC 20202
(Generated a 2,000-page volume with
60 papers, "Theories of School
Crime and Poverty," available from
National Technical Information
Service. A summary is in progress)

National Institute of Education
1200 19th Street, NW.
Washington, DC 20202
(Sponsor of the Safe School Study Report to Congress; supports research related to the problem.)

CONGRESSIONAL COMMITTEES

House Appropriations Committee
Subcommittee on Labor, Health, Education, and Welfare
2358 Rayburn Office Building
Washington, DC 20548

House Education and Labor Committee
Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary, and Vocational Education
3346C Rayburn Office Building
Washington, DC 20515

Senate Appropriations Committee
Subcommittee on Labor, Health, Education, and Welfare
1108 Dirksen Office Building
Washington, DC 20510

Senate Human Resources Committee
Subcommittee on Education, Arts, and Humanities
4228 Dirksen Office Building
Washington, DC 20510

NEWSLETTERS

School Administrator's Discipline and Control Update
Croft NEI Publications
24 Rope Ferry Road
Waterford, CT 06386
(Monthly publication with timely articles and interviews with leading educators)

Creative Discipline
American Friends Service Committee
Southeastern Public Education Program
401 Columbia Building
Columbia, SC 29201
(Monthly publication with valuable resources and programs; highlights programs that provide alternatives to suspension and methods of developing positive student outlooks).

APPENDIX C
VIOLENT SCHOOLS—SAFE SCHOOLS: EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Source: *Violent Schools--Safe Schools. The Safe School Study Report to the Congress. Executive Summary.* Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1978.

Executive Summary

In recent years, public attention has been focused increasingly on crime and violence in schools. Parents, teachers, and school administrators have all voiced their concern. Inquiring into the sources of delinquency throughout society, the Senate Subcommittee to Investigate Juvenile Delinquency has noted mounting evidence of school violence and vandalism. Yet organized data have not been available to describe the nature and extent of school crime and its cost to the nation.

To provide such information, Congressmen Bingham of New York and Bell of California introduced the Safe School Study Act in the House of Representatives. Following similar initiatives in the Senate by Senator Cranston of California, the Ninety-Third Congress, as part of the Education Amendments of 1974 (Public Law 93-380), required the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW) to conduct a study. The objectives of that study were to determine the frequency and seriousness of crime in elementary and secondary schools in the United States; the number and location of schools affected by crime; the cost of replacement or repair of objects damaged by school crime; and how school crime can be prevented.

METHODOLOGY

The National Institute of Education (NIE) conducted its study of school crime in three phases. In Phase I, a mail survey asked more than 4,000 elementary and secondary school principals to report in detail on the incidence of illegal or disruptive activities in their schools. Nine 1-month reporting periods between February 1976 and January 1977 (excluding summer months) were assigned to participating schools on a random basis.

In Phase II, field representatives conducted on-site surveys of a nationally representative cluster sample of 642 junior and senior high schools. Again, principals kept a record of incidents during the reporting month, and supplied additional information about their schools. Students and teachers were surveyed and asked to report any experiences they might have had as victims of violence or theft in the reporting month. In addition, they provided information about themselves, their schools, and their communities, which was later used in statistical analyses to sort out some of the factors that seemed to affect school crime rates.

Phase III involved a more intensive qualitative study of 10 schools. Most of the Phase III schools had had a history of problems with crime and violence, but had improved dramatically in a short time.

This report is based primarily on the NIE study, but it also includes information from a companion survey conducted in 1975 by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), and from other studies.

HOW SERIOUS IS THE PROBLEM OF CRIME AND DISRUPTION IN THE SCHOOLS?

There is no objective answer to this question, because no standards of overall seriousness exist to assess the problem. In this report we have used four different measures in an effort to characterize the seriousness of the problem.

Time Trends

Are crime and violence more prevalent in schools today than in the past? The evidence from a number of studies and official sources indicates that acts of violence and property destruction in schools increased throughout the 1960's to the early 1970's and leveled off after that.

The NIE Safe School Study data are consistent with these findings. Principals' assessments of the seriousness of violence and vandalism in their schools for the years 1971-1976 showed no overall change. In fact, they suggested some improvement in urban areas.

Risk to Students

Are students more at risk in school than elsewhere? An analysis of data from 26 cities in the Law Enforcement Administration's National Crime Survey indicates that the risk of violence to teenagers is greater in school than elsewhere, when the amount of time spent at school is taken into account. (Data from at least one other study support this finding.)

Although teenage youth may spend at most 25 percent of their waking hours in school, 40 percent of the robberies and 36 percent of the assaults on urban teenagers occurred in schools. The risks are especially high for youths aged 12 to 15: a remarkable 68 percent of the robberies and 50 percent of the assaults on youngsters of this age occurred at school. While only 17 to 19 percent of the violent offenses against urban youths in this age group occurred in the streets, the relative risk of violence cannot be determined because information on the average amount of time spent in the streets is not available.

The Principals' Opinions

In a third approach to gauging the seriousness of school crime, we relied on the assessments of elementary and secondary school principals. Three-quarters of the principals surveyed responded that vandalism, personal attacks, and thefts were either no problem or only a small problem at their schools. Seventeen percent of the principals reported a moderately serious problem, 6 percent a fairly serious one, and 2 percent a very serious one. In all, then, 8 percent of all schools indicated a serious problem. This figure represents approximately 6,700 schools in the Nation.

The proportion of seriously affected schools is related directly to community size: the larger the community, the greater the proportion of schools having a serious problem. The proportions ranged from 6 percent of the schools in small towns and rural areas to 15 percent in large cities.

However, four of five schools are in suburbs or rural areas. Therefore, although cities had the largest proportions of seriously affected schools, suburbs and rural areas had the largest numbers of such schools. In terms of numbers, then, the problem cannot be seen as essentially urban.

Principals of secondary schools reported higher levels of school crime than those in elementary schools.

An Objective Measure of Seriousness

As a fourth measure of the seriousness of school crime, we arbitrarily decided that schools reporting five or more illegal incidents in a month's time could be judged as having a serious problem. The figures obtained in this way agreed substantially with those derived from the principals' reports.

EXTENT OF THE PROBLEM

The survey data permit an assessment of the risks of offenses against persons and against the school, and also indicate the prevalence of "victimless offenses," particularly drug and alcohol use. Because the figures presented are estimates from a sample, they inevitably contain some degree of error, and estimates of crime in particular are especially difficult to make with confidence. In the case of data from teachers and students, the estimates are probably somewhat high. Nevertheless, they give some idea of the dimensions of the problem.

Reports of Students

Theft is clearly the most widespread of the offenses measured. In all, 11 percent (2.4 million) of the Nation's secondary school students have something worth more than $1 stolen from them in a month. Most of the reported thefts involved items such as small amounts of money, sweaters, books, notebooks, and other property commonly found in lockers. Only one-fifth of the reported thefts involved money or property worth $10 or more. No significant differences were apparent between school levels, and differences among locations were not pronounced. Petty theft appears to be commonplace throughout secondary schools.

An estimated 1.3 percent (282,000) of secondary school students report that they are attacked at school in a typical 1-month period. The proportion of junior high school students reporting attacks was about twice as great as that of senior high students (2.1 percent vs. 1 percent). About two-fifths of the reported attacks resulted in some injury, but only 4 percent involved injuries serious enough to require medical attention. While the

risk of minor attack is about the same in all locations, the risk of serious attack is greater in urban areas than elsewhere.

An estimated one-half of 1 percent of all secondary school students (112,000) are robbed in a typical month. (We use the term "robbery" as a shorthand reference for any act of taking something by force, weapons, or threats, including extortion and shakedowns.) The risks are again highest in junior high schools and in urban areas. Eighty-nine percent of the robberies involved no injury to the victim; 11 percent involved some injury, but only 2 percent of them were serious enough to require a doctor's attention.

For the typical secondary school student, then, we can estimate the risks as follows: he or she has about 1 chance in 9 of having something stolen in a month; 1 chance in 80 of being attacked; and 1 chance in 200 of being robbed.

Reports of Teachers

In a typical month, an estimated 12 percent of the teachers in secondary schools have something worth more than $1 stolen from them, about the same proportion as students (11 percent).

About one-half of 1 percent of secondary teachers are physically attacked at school in a month's time. Although the proportion is small, it represents some 5,200 of the Nation's 1 million secondary school teachers. Nearly one-fifth of the attacks (19 percent) reported by teachers required medical treatment. This percentage is much higher than the students' 4 percent, indicating that attacks on teachers are almost five times as likely to result in serious injury. The proportion of teachers attacked declines as we move from larger cities to rural areas, and junior high schools show higher percentages than senior highs.

A little over one-half of 1 percent (6,000) of all secondary school teachers are robbed at school in a month. Once again, large cities show the highest percentages and rural areas the lowest.

From these data we can provide rough estimates of the risks faced by a typical teacher in the Nation's secondary schools: she or he has around 1 chance in 8 of having something stolen at school in a given month, 1 chance in 167 of being robbed, and 1 chance in 200 of being attacked.

Reports of Principals

Estimates of offenses against schools, rather than persons, come from the principals' reports, and are probably conservative. Most widespread are the property offenses—trespassing, breaking and entering, theft of school property, and deliberate property destruction, sometimes called vandalism. Of these, property destruction is the most prevalent. Typically, a school's risk of experiencing some vandalism in a month is greater than one in four. The average cost of an act of vandalism is $81. In addition, 1 in 10 schools is broken into, at an average cost per burglary of $183. Schools are about five times as likely to be burglarized as commercial establishments such as stores, which have the highest burglary rates reported in the National Crime Survey.

Estimates of the annual cost of school crime run from about $50 million to $600 million, with most estimates clustering in the $100-$200 million range. Our best estimate of the yearly replacement and repair costs due to crime based on NCES data is around $200 million.

LOCATION OF OFFENSES

Considering offenses against the school geographically, the risks tend to be higher in the Northeast and West than in the North Central and Southern States.

For property offenses, the risks to schools do not differ much throughout metropolitan areas—urban and suburban. Indeed, the per capita cost of school crime is higher in the suburbs than in the cities. Moreover, according to secondary school students, beer, wine, and marijuana are widely available in schools throughout metropolitan areas, especially in senior high schools. School crime is not just an urban problem.

On the other hand, the risks of personal violence increase with the size of the community. And, in general, the risks of all types of school offenses are smallest in rural areas.

Both personal violence and vandalism are much more prevalent in secondary than in elementary schools. The incidence of property offenses is about the same in senior highs and junior highs, but personal violence is most pronounced in junior highs.

Reporting Offenses to Police

Only a small portion of violent offenses is reported to the police by schools. Of the attacks with injury recorded for the survey, only one-sixth were reported to police. Even when serious violence is involved, as with attacks requiring medical treatment, only about one-third of the offenses are reported. On the other hand, the majority of certain offenses against the school—especially burglaries—are reported. Of all offenses taken together, about one-third are reported to police.

Time and Place of Incidents

The risks of personal violence, personal theft, and disruptive/damaging acts against the school are highest during regular school hours and tend to occur more frequently during midweek. Four-fifths of all personal violence takes place during the schoolday. The risks of breaking and entering, on the other hand, are highest on weekends and secondarily during other nonschool hours. The occurrence patterns of personal and school property offenses tend to be complementary over days of the week.

For students, the classrooms are the safest places in school, considering the amount of time spent there. The risks are highest during the between-class rush in the hallways and stairs. Other places that pose substantial risks are the restrooms, cafeterias, locker rooms, and gyms.

VICTIMS AND OFFENDERS

With the exception of trespassing and breaking and entering, the great majority of all reported offenses in schools were committed by current students at the school. In most attacks and robberies at school, the offender is recognized by the victim. In three-fourths of all attacks and robberies of students, the victims and offenders were roughly the same age and the same sex. With minor exceptions, the risks of being a victim of either attack or robbery in secondary schools declines steadily as grade level increases. Seventh graders are most likely to be attacked or robbed and 12th graders are least so.

The risks of violence are greater in schools whose student compositions are less than 40 percent white. However, our analysis shows that there is no relation between a school's racial/ethnic composition and the risks of violence there, once other factors, such as the amount of crime in the neighborhood, are taken into account.

Court-ordered desegregation is associated with some increased violence at first; but the data suggest that, after some initial trouble, things start to quiet down.

The majority of attacks and robberies of students at school involve victims and offenders of the same race. However, a substantial proportion is interracial (42 percent of the attacks and 46 percent of the robberies). For minority students the risks are higher in predominantly white schools (70 percent or more white); for white students, the risks are greater in minority schools.

OTHER FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH SCHOOL OFFENSES

Our statistical analysis has shown that several factors are consistently associated with school violence and vandalism, even when each is weighed against the others.

Neighborhood Factors

The crime rate and the presence or absence of fighting gangs in the school's attendance area affect its violence. It seems that the more crime and violence students are exposed to outside school, the greater the problems in the school.

A school's proximity to students' homes can make it a convenient target for vandalism. Also, the presence of nonstudent youth around the school increases its risk of property loss.

Schools having higher proportions of students from families in which both parents are present, and in which discipline is firm, suffer less property loss through vandalism.

Schools with higher proportions of male students suffer more violence, because boys commit more violent offenses than girls. Schools composed of lower secondary grades have more violence than those composed of higher grades.

Impersonality and Alienation

Larger schools, and schools with larger classes, tend to experience more violence and vandalism. It seems that when teachers and administrators can establish personal relationships with students, the risks of violence decrease.

In addition, students need to feel that their courses are relevant and that they have some control over what happens to them at school. Otherwise, their feelings of frustration can erupt in violence.

Incentive Structure

Academic competition seems to decrease a school's risk of violence while increasing the amount of vandalism. Competition for leadership positions also seems to increase the amount of vandalism.

These findings are not as contradictory as they seem. The data suggest that the violent students are more likely to be those who have given up on school, do not care about grades, find the courses irrelevant, and feel that nothing they do makes any difference. Such students might take out their aggression in random acts of violence against other students. Caring about grades can be an important step toward commitment to the school and to one's own future, bringing with it a reduction in personal violence.

Vandalism, on the other hand, is more likely to occur in schools where students consider grades and leadership positions important, and where students rebel against the unfair use of grades for disciplinary purposes. Unlike the violent students, those who engage in vandalism are more likely to accept the value of the school's rewards but, we suspect, are losing out or feel cheated in the competition. Feeling denied by the school, they take out their aggressions on it rather than on other students.

School Governance

A firm, fair, and consistent system for running a school seems to be a key factor in reducing violence. Where the rules are known, and where they are firmly and fairly enforced, less violence occurs. Good coordination between the faculty and administration also promotes a better school atmosphere. However, a hostile and authoritarian attitude on the part of the teachers toward the students can result in more vandalism.

Overall, the results of the analysis stress the importance of a rational structure of incentives, both positive and negative, that serve to increase student commitment and to structure perceptions, expectations, and behavior.

DEVICES, PERSONNEL, AND PROCEDURES TO PREVENT CRIME AND DISRUPTION IN SCHOOLS

Schools have responded to crime and disruption with a wide array of security devices, such as specially designed locks, window and door alarms, and complex electronic systems. Principals who have used such devices consider them generally effective, but they also rate some of the more complicated electronic systems as undependable. Security devices are most heavily concentrated in urban schools, even though the risks of property crimes can be as great in suburban schools as in the cities. In terms of relative risks, suburban schools seem less well protected than urban schools.

Unlike the security devices, which are used primarily at night and on weekends, professional security personnel are employed during both school and nonschool hours. When school is not in session, they serve primarily to guard property; during the schoolday, however, they also help maintain safety and order in school. The skills required for the latter function are greater than those needed for guarding property; hence, school districts should recruit and train security personnel with particular care if they are to be used during the schoolday.

Principals who have employed security personnel, such as school security officers and police, rank them fairly high in reducing school crime; they also tend to rate them as more dependable (or less undependable) than the electronic security systems. Very few schools (1 percent, have regular police stationed in them, but the proportion is much higher in big city secondary schools (15 percent). School security officers are more widely used: they are present during the day in half of the junior highs and two-thirds of the senior highs in large cities. Even though junior high schools have higher rates of violence than senior highs, daytime security professionals are concentrated more in senior high schools. In terms of relative risks, then, junior highs seem to be getting a smaller share of these resources than they require.

Among the disciplinary procedures, suspension and paddling are the most widely used. No less than 36 percent of all secondary schools reported paddling students in a typical month. The practice is more prevalent in junior than in senior high schools and, unlike any of the other procedures, devices, or personnel, is most prevalent in rural areas: 61 percent of all rural junior high schools reported paddling students in a month's time.

While principals generally feel that they receive adequate support from other school authorities, parents, and police in handling discipline problems, they give the local courts very low ratings in this respect. Moreover, urban principals are much more likely than those in other areas to use security devices, security personnel, and disciplinary measures, but they are much less likely to say that they get adequate support from the school board and central administration.

Principals', Teachers', and Students' Recommendations

Students and teachers in secondary schools and principals at both levels were asked to recommend ways for schools to reduce vandalism, personal attacks, and theft. In addition, principals were asked to describe specific programs or measures they had

employed and found successful in reducing these problems.

Of all the various recommendations, discipline was rated as being of prime importance. Indeed, with the exception of the successful practices reported by elementary school principals, discipline was ranked first by all groups of respondents: as a successful strategy by secondary school principals and as a general recommendation by principals at both levels and secondary school students and teachers.

When we consider the practices listed as successful by all principals—elementary as well as secondary—the use of security devices ranked first. However, these devices tended to receive middle-level recommendations from principals, teachers, and students altogether.

The use of security personnel was among the top three (out of eight) categories of successful practices listed by principals, and it received middle-level rankings from the principals, teachers, and students who were asked to make general recommendations. The use of security personnel was highly recommended by all groups of respondents in large city schools, where such personnel are most prevalent.

In all schools, training and organizational change, parental involvement, and improvement of the school climate were strategies also mentioned frequently.

THE CENTRAL ROLE OF SCHOOL GOVERNANCE

A central conclusion of this study is that strong and effective school governance, particularly by the principal, can help greatly in reducing school crime and misbehavior.

Throughout the Safe School Study, and especially in Phase III, the principal's leadership and his or her initiation of a structure of order seemed to differentiate safe schools from those having trouble.

The leadership role of the principal appears to be a critical factor in itself. Visibility and availability to students and staff are characteristics of the principals in Phase III schools that have made a dramatic turnaround from periods of violence.

Equal in importance to the principal's personal style of leadership, we found, was her or his ability to initiate a structure of order in the school. In every successful Phase III school, the system of governance could be characterized as "fair, firm, and, most of all, consistent." This finding complements a number of recent research findings that indicate that a consistent structure of order is an important determinant of success in many areas of education, from teaching reading to establishing a school climate conducive to learning.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

A number of themes run through the findings of the Safe School Study. As stated here, they represent the distillation of the answers to surveys and interviews with administrators, teachers, and students, and of our own observations in some of the Nation's schools.

Although it does not appear that school violence and vandalism is getting worse,

there is abundant evidence of a problem requiring policy initiatives. School crime and disruption should be recognized as a significant problem, one that must receive open attention and public concern. If a school district has reason to think that its schools might have serious troubles, it should assess the problem and give it primary consideration. Schools themselves can and should do a great deal to reduce crime and disruption, but an adequate program to deal with the problem requires the cooperation and resources that can come only through local planning supplemented by financial and technical assistance.

Schools should give particular attention to establishing effective governance programs, and to assuring a structure of incentives—such as grades and honors—that recognizes students for their efforts and achievements. This might mean rewarding students for diverse kinds of accomplishments, including individual improvement, and broadening the availability of rewards. Consideration should also be given to ways of decreasing the impersonality of secondary schools and increasing the amount of continuing contact between students and teachers.

Schools and their communities should recognize the key role of the principal in troubled schools, and give special attention to recruiting and training principals for schools that are seriously affected by crime and disruption. They should also provide the resources necessary for these principals to exercise a leadership role vis-a-vis students and teachers. One helpful step might be to provide principals with assistance in managing routine administrative matters, leaving them with more time to take leadership roles.

Teachers and other school personnel require pre- and in-service training for making schools safe. For teachers in seriously affected schools, intensive training in classroom management can be an important means of increasing their skills and effectiveness. Also, communities and their school districts can reduce violence by increasing the number of teachers in schools that are having serious problems with crime and disruption.

Security measures can also be helpful in reducing violence and property loss in schools, provided they are not used as a substitute for effective governance. School systems with serious problems of violence and vandalism can benefit from hiring additional security personnel with training in interpersonal skills as well as security functions. Schools with serious problems should give special attention to surveillance and traffic control in areas such as hallways, stairwells, and cafeterias, where violence and disruption are most likely to start. Security devices, if schools elect to use them, should be selected with care and with reference to their special needs. In addition, schools and school systems should coordinate their efforts with those of local courts; most also need to improve their recordkeeping and reporting problems to the police.

Data Collection and a range of other essential tasks for the Safe School Study were conducted by the Research Triange Institute of North Carolina under contract to NIE.

☆U.S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1979— 311-379:1696